The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 12, 1891.

The Week.

Now that Secretary Foster has finished campaigning in Ohio, and has no longer any motive for concealing the facts about the condition of the Treasury, we think he ought to let the public know how serious that condition is. The record of Treasury receipts and expenditures for October completes four months of the current fiscal year, and shows the same alarming falling off in income that has been noticeable ever since the McKinley tariff took full effect. For the last four months the receipts from customs have been but $58,734,456, or $32,504,262 less than for the same period last year. This is at the rate of a reduction in revenue of $97,512,786 a year in customs alone. While the returns on the score of internal revenue show a slight increase for the first third of the year, there is a falling off in other items which brings the total receipts of the Treasury for the period down to $119,746 995, as compared with the corresponding $154,930,894 in 1890. Here, then, is a total diminution of revenue going on at the rate of $105,551,697 yearly. Now it is perfectly futile for Mr. Foster to keep saying, in the face of this showing, that the Treasury is in an "easy" condition. It is in the highly uneasy condition of a man with more debts than money. The appropriations call for an outlay of $166,000,000 during the time when the revenue has been but $119,000,000. That means an annual deficit of more than $140,000,000. Does the Secretary call that "easy"? It is certain he does not do so in his private talks with bankers, whatever he may feel compelled to say on the stump. It is well known that he has been advised by friendly bankers to "hold up" appropriations. That is just what he has been doing, as the figures show on their face. He has been putting off the evil day as long as possible; but he will have to tell the truth in his report to Congress next month, and then the hope of his party that the Democrats may blunder in financial matters will have at least this basis to go upon, that an unsurpassed model of blundering has been set them by the Republicans.

Senator Vest of Missouri, who has been one of the most urgent of the free-silver advocates, follows the lead of Mr. Mills, and puts the silver question in the background till after the next Presidential election. In an interview which was published on Monday, he says that the recent elections make it certain that the Democratic Presidential ticket next year will be "Cleveland and Boies, or Cleveland and Gray, but always Cleveland," and adds:

"You want to know how silver Democrats like myself will stand as to his candidacy? We will support him earnestly and loyally, for we believe him to be wrong, but honestly wrong, and he has as much right to his opinion as we have to ours. The views of any Democrat as to free coinage constitute no test of party fealty, for our party in national convention has never so declared. Above all, however, and this is with me conclusive, Mr. Cleveland can be elected on the issue of tariff reform, and I regard the defeat of the Republican party at the next election as the greatest possible good for the country. Every Democrat should be willing to postpone the silver question, if it be necessary, to prevent Republican success."

This means that there will be no free-coinage bill passed by the next Congress, as Senator Sherman, and every other Republican leader who is longing to get away from the McKinley tariff issue, has been hoping there would be.

The Iowa Republicans are still struggling with the problem of what to do about prohibition. Although the Democrats secured control of the State Senate, the Republicans have a small majority in the lower branch of the Legislature. Gov. Boies will, of course, renew his recommendations for the repeal of the prohibitory law, and the substitution of a high-license and local-option system, and the Democratic Senate will pass a bill embodying these ideas The question will then be, Shall the Republican House allow this bill to pass that body? The votes of four or five Republicans will suffice to give it a majority and thus abolish prohibition. Gov. Boies expresses confidence that the needed votes will be secured, and there are undoubtedly a great many Republicans who would like to see this happen. The difficulty is, that the Republicans made their campaign on a distinct pledge to stand by the existing law. As their State platform put it: "We submit to the people of Iowa the determination of the issue, recognizing that the control of the next Legislature by the Democratic party means State-wide license, and that the control of the next Legislature by the Republicans means continued opposition to the behests of the saloon power through the maintenance and enforcement of the law."

The Republicans consequently find themselves in a terrible quandary. Three successive elections have shown that they cannot hope to carry the State so long as prohibition remains the chief issue and they stand by the law. It would, therefore, seem the part of wisdom for them to help the Democrats in the Legislature to repeal the law. But they can do this only by breaking the most binding pledges to maintain the law. Moreover, if they do break these pledges, there can be no doubt that many of those Republicans who believe in prohibition will be so much incensed against the party that they will refuse to support it after it thus yields to "the behests of the saloon power." If four or five Republicans had been nominated and elected to the Legislature upon a personal platform of independence in this matter, and with the understanding that they reserved the right to vote as they chose on the question, the case would not be so bad for the party, but there does not appear to be a single such representative. The choice must be made between keeping the party's pledge, and thereby offending again the anti-Prohibition Republicans, and breaking the pledge, and thereby disgusting the Prohibition Republicans, with the cheerful conviction that they "will be damned if they do and damned if they don't."

Mr. Lacey's singular conception of the duties of Comptroller of the Currency has received fresh illustration from the Maverick Bank affair. There is, indeed, a parallel both instructive and disheartening between the action of the Comptroller in this case and in the case of the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia. The Philadelphia Bank Examiner, Mr. Drew, reported to Mr. Lacey on the Keystone Bank's rotten condition fully a year before the collapse came. So far back as last January, Mr. Magruder, the competent Bank Examiner of Boston, notified the Comptroller that the Maverick Bank was virtually insolvent. In both instances the warning of the experts was utterly ignored at Washington. Mr. Magruder continued his warnings as time went on and the bank's condition grew worse. To offset these warnings, the President of the Maverick Bank, a reckless speculator, went personally to Washington. Apparently he, like the dishonest President of the Keystone, was able to apply the screws of political influence, and the Bank Examiner's appeals were calmly pigeon-holed. In the end, the anxiety so worked upon Mr. Magruder that he broke down in health and died, leaving behind him, more fortunate than Mr. Drew, letters and documents fully clearing his official character. While this serene indifference prevailed at Washington, the officers of the Maverick Bank were engaged in violating the fundamental provisions of the National Bank Act. Its President took out on his personal note or endorsement $1,200,000, or thirty times as much as he had a legal right to borrow, presumably to pull him through his own unlucky ventures. Two directors helped themselves to $900,000 more; and all this, be it remembered, months after the Bank Examiner had notified his superior officer that the institution was insolvent. For ten months depositors were left to put their money in the rotten bank, trusting, like all depositors in national banks, that silence by the national banking bureau was equivalent to a guarantee of solvency.

Judge Ross of the U. S. District Court in California has directed a verdict of acquittal in the prosecution of Trumbull, the Chilian agent, and Burt for fitting out the *Itata* in violation of the neutrality laws. The Judge

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found that the arms were put on board the *Itata* simply for transmission to Chili, that this did not constitute a violation of the statute, and that the secrecy with which it was done was a wholly irrelevant fact. All this reminds us of the inestimable service which we rendered to the editor of the *Times* last May, when he sent his cruiser, the *Charleston*, after the *Itata*, and said that if she "was blown out of the water," the owners would have themselves to thank, for had they not "violated our laws"? We pointed out respectfully that it would be a terrible thing to blow a ship out of the water for an offence which was at most a misdemeanor, punishable with a short term of imprisonment, and that it would never do to blow her out of the water without trial, and allow the captain of the *Charleston* to be judge, jury, and executioner all in one. At first the editor would not hear of leniency, but we believe these representations of ours at last had their intended effect, and induced our truculent but estimable contemporary to desist from his fell purpose. The "chase" was continued, but, we surmise, with secret instructions not to catch the *Itata*, as she had not left behind any memorandum of the course she would take. Is it too much to suppose that we thus saved him from undying remorse? He cannot be too careful of the way he uses his navy in time of peace.

Judge Ross's decision in this case of the *Itata*, following on his decision in the case of the *Robert and Minnie*, and supported as it is by Judge Blatchford's decision in the *Florida* case in 1871, seems to establish the rule that it is no violation of neutrality to sell arms to a belligerent, or to ship them for transportation to a belligerent port, but simply an operation of lawful trade. We believe the Chilians had good legal opinion to this effect before they purchased the arms in New York. It is a rule, too, which our Government, as one likely to be neutral in nearly all possible wars, ought to have asserted and upheld in the interest of American commerce and manufactures, and would doubtless have upheld if the interest of the Administration in the Chilian conflict had been simply diplomatic. We observe that its organs claim great credit for Secretary Tracy because, on hearing from Balmaceda that he had "outlawed" the Chilian fleet, he did not allow our navy to treat the Chilian men-of-war as "pirates." But suppose President Harrison had dispersed Congress by force of arms, and closed the Supreme Court, and announced that he was going to govern the country dictatorially, and the American fleet had refused any longer to obey his orders, and had transferred its allegiance to Congress as the only surviving portion of the lawful government—should we have thanked Great Britain for not setting upon it and capturing it as piratical?

The creed-revision movement in the Presbyterian Church has brought out a great many surprising views, but we doubt if there have been any advanced anywhere so startling as those in the paper read in the New York Presbytery on Monday in support of the report on revision. Said the speaker: "Election unto eternal life is Scriptural. . . . But no foreordination unto death, passing-by, or non-election, *however logically they may seem to be inferable* from the former, etc." And he added: "Let our poor little *logic* go." After such a complete abandonment of the whole basis of theology considered as a science, the puzzling thing is to find the man who makes it going on to glorify the "system" of which he would not for one moment impair the "integrity." Now, the Calvinistic "system" is nothing if not logical. Whatever may be said about its premises, it has never been charged that their unfolding was not an exhibition of the most rigorous logic. To give up the "logic" while clinging to the "system," is like expecting the Temple of Dagon to stand after Samson has pulled out its pillars. If it were admitted that theology has been wrong all along in assuming airs of certainty and authority to which it had no valid claim, it would be a different matter; but an infallible science repudiating itself and its methods is in danger of losing all respect. A devout traveller in Rome was asked his opinion of certain "new saints" just then in great vogue. His reply was: "These new saints make me distrust the old ones."

An American in London writes to us:

"Do make some reference to Smalley's letter of October 11 in the *Tribune* in regard to Mr. Gladstone's Newcastle speech, and also to a bit in his Parnell letter of the same date, apropos of the alliance with the Gladstonians. It is a shame that he should make such statements to the American public; he would not dare to do it here and take the personal consequences. There is something very revolting in his acceptance of Gladstonian hospitality whenever it is offered to him, and this return behind their backs, as it were."

To which we answer that we do not think Mr. Smalley's views of English politics worth serious reference of any kind. They are, of course, absurd views for an American observer in England to take, but as they make no impression on his own paper, the *Tribune*, which steadily ignores them in its editorial articles, it seems hardly worth the while of any other paper to discuss them. Moreover, they are, in our opinion, mainly intended to draw English "hospitality." "Hospitality" is, in fact, the Squire's chief pursuit. Of course he ought not to accept hospitality from the Gladstonians when abusing and misrepresenting them, but our correspondent must remember that he must do this as a means of securing Tory hospitality, which is undoubtedly better hospitality than that of the Gladstonians. The Tories have more country houses, and give more and better dinners; and the Squire is not the man to despise good victuals and good wine. Of course a paper like the *Tribune* ought to keep an impartial and intelligent observer in London, but nothing we could say would bring this about.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the effect of much politics without any responsibility on an excitable people than is afforded by the "shindy" in Cork over the election of a successor to Parnell which took place on Friday. It has never, since the Union, made any difference to an Irish voter what kind of legislator a candidate was likely to be, what measures he was likely to favor and what to oppose, simply because he was sure to have no influence on legislation. Consequently, as a rule, the candidate's personality has stood in the voters' eyes far above his political capacity, and, as long as he was hostile to English government, he met every requirement of the situation. Nor has the Irish voter ever learned the lesson that violence of any kind would damage his party or his cause, and lead to the defeat of some scheme or policy which he had at heart. On the contrary, he has always seen and heard that violence has procured him from England all the remedial legislation he cared for. Murders and outrages have been his one mode of attracting the attention of the British Parliament to the Irish questions. This being the case, it is open to him, he thinks, to express his feelings during electoral canvasses in any manner he pleases, and out of which he gets most fun. Some may like attending meetings and listening to speeches, but others like to "lay out" their opponents with a blackthorn or shillelah. It has never made the slightest difference in the political arena which taste predominated. The obvious deduction from all this seems to be that the retention in Ireland of the forms of Parliamentary government, without any Parliamentary power or responsibility, has been an unmixed misfortune for the character of the people, and also for the two countries which have had most to do with them, England and America. We have no hesitation in saying that the Irish would be far better off in the matter of political judgment and self-control to-day if they had lived, like the Italians, under semi-military rule during the past century, than living as they have lived, under sham parliamentary institutions. They have acquired under these a taste for politics, and a conception of politics as something which has nothing to do with the public welfare, and out of which each man may lawfully get all he can either in sport or money. If there be anything reasonable in this view, the eulogies heaped on Mr. Balfour for prolonging the tutelary régime, and commending it once more to the English mind, are remarkable displays of fatuity.

Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Morley have been having one of the fiercest encounters in recent English political history. Mr. Chamberlain has distinguished himself for a good while by his criticism of things done by his old associates while he was in the Liberal Cabinet; and his zeal as a convert, as is not uncommon, has been making him more and more reckless in his statements. So he made a speech the other day in which he expressed his belief that if Gladstone got into power again, he would "make an awful mess" of things, as he had done before, and ascribing to the Tory party almost all the social legislation of the last fifty years,

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and accusing Mr. Gladstone of having caused the loss of his (Chamberlain's) Shipping Bill for the protection of sailors in 1883. This brought Mr. Morley down on him at Manchester in a savage speech bristling with quotations from Chamberlain's former sayings as a Liberal, reminding him, high Conservative as he now is, of his "ransom" doctrine of 1885, of Lord Salisbury's calling him a "Jack Cade," and of his having deliberately, at Hull in the same year, ascribed the failure of his Shipping Bill to "the Tory party" and Lord Salisbury, and of his extravagant eulogies on Mr. Gladstone so late as 1886, when he again took office under him. But the most serious and damaging part of the recrimination was the criticism of Chamberlain for talking, as if an innocent bystander, of the "awful mess" made of it by the Gladstonian Cabinet of 1880–1886, of which he was himself a prominent member. The combatants subsequently locked horns in the *Times*, Mr. Chamberlain trying to "explain" and Mr. Morley again rending him with bitterness. This last exploit seems to have filled the cup of Liberal hatred of the Birmingham statesman to overflowing, but he has evidently given up all hope or intention of ever returning to the Liberal ranks. One of the good features of English politics appears in the fact that no quarrel with his old party can exclude such a man as Chamberlain from public life. With his talents he is always sure of a seat somewhere. But his chances of office will be small as long as he refuses to call himself a Tory, for the Tories are poor now, and dislike extremely sharing salaried places with any but thoroughbreds of their own party.

To understand the nature of the situation in Berlin, which has developed already into something like a financial crisis, it should be remembered that in Germany, as in Great Britain, the United States, and other countries, the last two years or more have been marked by the efforts of great banking houses to "float" the paper of new industrial and commercial schemes. There, as here, the profits of private bankers had fallen off enormously through the bad times, the decrease in speculative business, and the withdrawal of outside investors from the markets. In Great Britain this same phenomenon was attended by the craze for industrial shares and South American bonds; in Berlin there followed a similarly reckless effort of bankers to grasp at any kind of business, however hazardous, which would bring heavy commissions in return for the risk. Necessarily, this kind of banking, breaking as it did with all conservative precedents, developed weak spots in numerous financial quarters. The collapse of November, 1890, brought down many of the rotten houses in Europe, and Russia's sudden recall of its deposits last spring forced many more to the brink of destruction. If a rich harvest and business revival had followed in Europe this season, most of these houses would probably have been able to save themselves. Instead, they have been confronted with the most disastrous harvest year of recent times. Liquidation has been persistent in nearly all financial quarters. Distrust grew in both Paris and Berlin, and, as if their existing burden was not heavy enough, the French bankers, driven into a corner by the failure of public subscriptions to the new Russian loan, actually assumed on their own account $60,000,000 of the bonds which even the Chauvinist investor would not buy. As a consequence, they have been forced, in order to raise the necessary funds, to throw on the market their holdings of all other securities dealt in upon the Continental bourses. The strain has been too heavy for the weakest Berlin houses, and two or three have gone down within a week. The end of all this is hard to foretell. Particularly interesting is its bearing upon our own finances. The situation, we believe, is wholly without precedent. Its elements favor the American markets so distinctly as to have led already, in many minds, to a belief in a "bull year." Yet it may well be asked if our country, under the present close association of the world's financial markets, can reap the normal benefits of our extraordinary harvest while Europe is sinking in the very slough of financial despondency. Even our heavy imports of gold, which excite daily jubilation here, are wrenched away from business centres which need them far more sorely than ourselves.

The Cardinals are, like ourselves, getting ready for what is their Presidential election. There is no concealing the fact that the Pope is in an almost moribund condition, and, considering the greatness of his office and its importance to so large a portion of the Christian world, it would be false delicacy not to take up the question of the successorship. The Cardinals, therefore, and the higher clergy are discussing it with freedom; but, unfortunately, the Pope himself expects to have a say in the matter, and does not relish any display of independence by those around him. The Cardinal Vicar, Monsignor Parocchi, who has vice-episcopal charge of the Diocese of Rome itself, has fallen under the suspicion of preparing "a boom" of his own, if we may use the expression—that is, of talking of himself and permitting others to talk of him as a candidate—and he therefore either has had to resign or is said to be going to resign his office and get out of sight, owing to the Pope's disapproval. The coming election is likely to be one of unusual interest for two reasons. One is the possibility of the election of a Pope who would come to terms with the Italian Government and finally abandon all claim to the temporal power. This a great many Catholics would consider an immense misfortune and scandal. Some provision, but probably not adequate provision, against this contingency has been made by an oath administered to the cardinals "to maintain the patrimony of St. Peter"; but then nearly every vanished claim and possession has been vainly defended by oaths. The second reason is the growing pressure from the foreign clergy on the Italians to be allowed a chance of accession to the Popedom. The Italians, who organized and indeed founded the Roman Catholic Church, have managed for ages to keep the tiara to themselves, but the foreigners, who are now brought by modern improvements in transportation into such close contact with Rome, are more and more eager for the throwing open of the competition to all nations. At the next election, according to all accounts, the Italians will have some difficulty in holding their own, but many of them would probably look on the success of a Frenchman, or German, or Irishman as St. Augustine looked on the irruption of Alaric through the Porta Salaria. The Barbarians, however, are nearly as irresistible now as they were then.

There is something admirable in the gravity with which Fonseca sets forth the iniquity of the Brazilian Congress, and declares his unalterable resolution to put down all enemies of the Republic. When he gets a truly good Congress, with some of the unfortunate features of the present Constitution knocked out of it, all is to go on as peacefully as before. Very likely, unless somebody should again run athwart the President, when he would undoubtedly rally the army and navy again and proceed afresh to the work of restoring "republican institutions" to their pristine purity. Some idea of his conception of the subservient functions of Congress may be gathered from the way the late crisis was brought on. He promptly vetoed a bill prohibiting the holding of national and State offices at the same time. This was certainly a needed measure, as the practice was most extraordinary and demoralizing. Thus, a member of the Cabinet was at the same time a Governor of a State, other Governors were members of Congress, one Governor held a seat in the Legislature of another State, and men even acted as judges at the same time that they filled executive and legislative offices. In one case a member of Congress was a minister to a foreign country. Fonseca declared the bill unconstitutional, refused to approve it, and berated the Congress for passing it. In his attitude towards the State governments he was equally arbitrary and overbearing, removing and recognizing Governors at his pleasure. So flagrant was his course towards São Paulo that one of its representatives in Congress threatened secession, saying: "If the Government will not yield to reason, it will be made to yield to force, for São Paulo, to resist the encroachments of the Government, can in five or six months put 50,000 men in the field." But it was especially in matters of financial administration that the greatest indignation at the President's usurpations was aroused among the nation's representatives. Fonseca ignored their protest until it began to take the form of a process of impeachment, and then he made his sudden discovery that they were all traitors and monarchists at heart.

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THE BOSSES.

THE work of interpreting the elections goes on bravely, and is almost as varied in its entertainment as was the work of predicting the result. We find in the Republican explanation of the Democratic victory in New York a general disposition to ascribe it to "bossism." The Republican voters, says one country organ of the party,

> "feared Tammany, and they had a right to; but between it and Plattism they dreaded the tiger less. The day for Platts, Quays, Dudleys, and their kind is past. The Republican party should throw off its bosses everywhere, and, when it does, the independent voters will flock to its standard and it will again control the States and the nation."

One finds the same sort of moral in a great many other organs, including even the hide-bound Philadelphia *Press*, which observes that

> "The Republican voters of New York have plainly taken this opportunity to express their opinion, not of the candidate of the party, but of its leadership. It is idle to forget the causes or overlook the motives which have led Republican voters to abandon a Republican candidate who deserved the support of every Republican. It has again proved easier in New York State to control the organization of the party than to command the hearty support of its voters."

These conclusions are even less valuable than the prophecies before election from the same quarters. In our humble opinion "the day for the Platts, Quays, Dudleys, and their kind" is by no means past. The general adoption of the Australian ballot may somewhat limit their field of party usefulness—that is, it may diminish their opportunities of buying votes and making "deals"; but it by no means destroys their *raison d'être*. The truth is, and each election makes it clearer and clearer, that wherever and whenever the public offices are used to reward party services, or to promote what is considered the party welfare, there will always be, and will always have to be, a "Boss" to superintend the work of distribution. This is true of city, State, and nation, without any exception whatever. We always have a municipal Boss in New York, and always shall have, as long as there are so many fat offices to be used as the spoils of victory after election, with the consent or acquiescence of the public. Bosses come and Bosses go, but the office remains. Kelly succeeds Tweed, and Croker succeeds Kelly, and somebody else of like kind is sure to succeed Croker; and the reason is that the work of selecting, once in two years, the persons who, in payment for their political services, are to get a chance to live on the municipal treasury, necessarily creates a sort of dictator. The system could not be maintained except through the one-man power. "Spoils" are always divided by a chief of some kind, whose will is law and before whom the boldest malcontent has to hold his peace. The municipal Boss, like Croker here and McLaughlin in Brooklyn, differs, however, from the State Boss, in that he is, so to speak, Boss in his own right. He owes his power to strength of will, powers of command, and intimate knowledge of the character of his followers.

The State Boss, on the other hand, has only a delegated authority. He is not self-made. He is a prætor governing a province with forces supplied him by the President at Washington. But he, too, is a necessity of the situation. As long as the President treats the vast patronage at his disposal chiefly as a means of rewarding the people who work for him and his party at elections, and only secondarily as a means of honestly and efficiently conducting the public business—as long, in short, as about 70,000 offices are made to change hands after every change in the party in power in Washington—there must be in each State a Boss to superintend the distribution of the prize money. The spoils system cannot get along without him. In the small States, in which Federal offices are few in number, he will be a small Boss, of little account. But in the large States like New York and Pennsylvania he will be a leviathan like Platt and Quay. There would be a similar leviathan also in Massachusetts, owing to the size of Boston, but for the singularly intelligent and thoroughly democratic character of the voters. The Massachusetts Boss is consequently a much smaller personage than his New York and Pennsylvania congener, and his tenure is more precarious, but he exists and grows stronger.

We ought not to indulge in any illusions in this matter. We might get rid of Platt to punish him for not having carried the election, but he would have to be replaced by somebody else to-morrow. Platt to-day is weak and despised, but why? Not because Bosses are considered bad things, but because he has not done successfully a Boss's work. When he is called to account by his superiors in Washington for his recent failure, what they will say to him is not, "Is it true that you have been debauching the voters of the State by money, and corrupting the Legislature through 'deals' and 'intrigues,' and discrediting the Administration through unworthy promises and base contracts?" but, "What in thunder did you do with the custom-houses and other public establishments which we placed at your disposal? What was the use of giving you the Custom-house and all the Post-offices, and the Sub-Treasuries and the Internal Revenue Collectorships, and every other Federal office in the State, if you can't carry an important State election?"

What is most curious in all this to intelligent lookers-on is, that the offices never do help the Boss to carry elections. In 1882, President Arthur, as a New Yorker, acted as his own Boss in this State, and used the offices remorselessly against the Half-Breeds and Democrats, but Cleveland was elected Governor by the greatest majority in the history of the State. In 1884 the same story was repeated. Blaine had the Bosses and the offices on his side, and was beaten. In 1888 Cleveland had the Bosses and offices on his side and was beaten. On Tuesday week all that one of the ablest, most indefatigable and unscrupulous of the Bosses, Lodge of Massachusetts, could do failed to prevent the reëlection of a Democratic Governor. This, too, occurred in a State in which a brave soldier, a thoroughly efficient city postmaster, had been dismissed from office in the openly avowed and cynical expectation that it would frighten Democrats and encourage Republicans in other States. So that we think we can confidently assure our Republican contemporaries that they cannot get rid of their Bosses without laying the axe to the root of that upas tree, the spoils system; and also, that "of all horned cattle," as Horace Greeley used to say, in politics, a Boss is the least useful, the most deluding.

THE "SCARE" ARGUMENT GONE.

PERHAPS the most striking moral of the late elections is the demonstration that what may be called the "scare" argument of the Republicans is finally gone. This fact is brought out most forcibly by the returns from Massachusetts and Iowa; and no other two States in the whole Union could illustrate the change so clearly.

Ever since the war, the chief reliance of the Republican managers, whenever their party was hard pressed by the Opposition, has been the ingrained fear of the South and of the Democratic party, which was, naturally enough, felt by those who remembered the slavery era and who had lived through the civil war. If corruption ran riot in the Republican party under Grant and a change of Administration was demanded, a scare was produced by loud assertions that the election of Tilden would mean the payment of thousands of millions of "rebel claims" and the pensioning of rebel soldiers; and Republicans who were inclined to vote the Democratic ticket were frightened back into support of their old party. If an unworthy man secured the Republican nomination for the Presidency, and the interests of morality demanded a rebuke of the party by a vote against him, the cry was raised that the "Solid South" stood behind Cleveland and would dictate the policy of his administration if he should be elected, and inflict all manner of harm upon the nation.

In those States which have a number of large cities, a class of Independent voters has long existed which could not be influenced by the "scare" argument, but it has hitherto retained its potency in the rural districts. The Republican farmers in the "back towns" might seem to grow lax in the faith once in a while, but it was only necessary, when an important election approached, to send among them a lot of stump speakers who should yell "Solid South," "rebel brigadiers," and "dangers of Democratic rule," and they could be brought once more to the polls ready to "save the country" by voting the Republican ticket again.

The old dodge was tried once more this year, but it failed to work. The Republican orators in Massachusetts with one accord declared that, however worthy of re-election Gov. Russell might be, he must be beaten because his success would encourage the Democratic party throughout the nation, and help to bring about a Democratic victory in the national contest next year. As

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Henry Cabot Lodge said on the day before election:

"They are fighting for Massachusetts for 1892. They want to get the State as a great card in that great Presidential game. Every Republican who gives his vote to-morrow casts it in the Presidential election just as surely as he will cast it there next fall. It is useless to disguise it any longer. The battle has taken such a shape that it has all the importance of the national and Presidential year. I have been all over this State in this campaign—from Berkshire to the Cape—and they are aroused throughout the State. The Republican vote is coming out unless every sign is false and fails—they are coming out all over the State—they are coming here with a great majority for you [turning to Mr. Allen, the Republican candidate]."

The voters *did* come out in the small towns all over the State, but they did not bring the expected Allen majority with them. The farmers went to the polls very generally, but they did not wear the anxious expression of old lest the country should go to ruin if Russell should be reëlected. Not a few of them, life-long Republicans though they had been, helped to reëlect him, and boldly declared that they were not afraid of any harm coming from it.

Iowa is an agricultural State to a far greater extent than Massachusetts, and the overwhelming majority of its voters live in the farming towns. It has always been the secure fortress of the Republicans whenever the "scare" argument was brought out. It was really pitiful to watch the simple-minded farmers as the stump-speakers, winking slyly to each other the while, retailed time and time again the ancient "gags," and frightened them into rolling up majorities which sometimes ran as high as 75,000. They essayed to play the old game again this year, and warned all hesitating Republicans that the reëlection of Boies would make Iowa a doubtful State in 1892, and promote the election of a Democratic President. But to their surprise the voters were not scared this time. One of them, Mr. H. D. Cope, explained why, in a speech at Des Moines giving his reasons for supporting Boies: "He was formerly a Republican. He was a great admirer of Mr. Blaine, and worked hard in the political field during that gentleman's campaign. When Blaine was defeated, he was, as his wife expressed it, 'sick for a week.' What followed?" he proceeded. "I, who believed nothing good could come out of Democracy, saw a four-years' administration by an honest, able, conscientious American citizen, who surrounded himself by a Cabinet of able, representative men. I saw that President leave the chair respected alike by friend and enemy." There were so many Republicans who could not be frightened any more than Mr. Cope that Boies was reëlected by a handsome majority, although the total vote was much larger than that cast in the last Presidential election, showing that the "Republican reserves" did not stay at home.

The downfall of the "scare" argument is cause for general rejoicing. It was never anything but a humbug and fraud, yet for almost a quarter of a century it has been the salvation of demagogues and rascals. Now that it is finally gone, we can have campaigns in which clap-trap will be at a discount, and both parties will appeal to the intelligence of the voters. This is really the most encouraging result of last week's voting.

THE BRIGGS CASE.

THE clearly avowed motive of the New York Presbytery in dismissing the charges against Prof. Briggs on the very first day of the trial last week, was a pure longing for peace at any price. On the merits of the case no opinion was expressed, except in the vague statement, amended into the resolution in order to win the votes of conservatives, that the action was taken "without approving of the position taken in the Inaugural Address." Prof. Briggs himself did not argue the main question. His adroit and able answer was simply a demurrer to the indictment. It may very well have brought a certain amount of shame on the prosecuting committee, as they saw their loose and illogical charges so mercilessly dissected at the hands of the skilful ecclesiastical lawyer, and their childish and futile use of Scripture held up to contempt. But it did not, after all, touch the vitals of the case, and was not intended to. It was only preliminary, and suggestive of the artillery the learned Professor had in reserve for use in the main battle. The dismissal of the case was not determined by this introductory pleading, except in a very small degree.

We say this because it is evident from the proceedings that the advocates of peace had been counting noses, during the time since the charges were presented, and had found that they could reverse the narrow majority by which the prosecution had been originally ordered. And they were all ready with their motion as soon as Prof. Briggs's paper was read, and before the Presbytery was given any chance to act upon it. They could have passed it just as well at the start. The truth is, the New York Presbytery had to be harried into taking up the case at all. Prof. Briggs advanced no new views in his famous inaugural. He had uttered and published them in one form and another many times, and the Presbytery never moved against him, even in the face of his challenge to do so. But when his transfer to a new chair in Union Seminary gave the Presbyterians of the West a chance to strike at him through the relations of the Seminary to the General Assembly, the pressure grew so great that the Presbytery of this city were driven to take the matter up lest their own orthodoxy should be called in question. But they have never had any heart in it, and the decision to drop the whole thing without further discussion was sure to come in time, given the composition of the Presbytery.

It has been a standing and open complaint of Western Presbyterians that the Presbytery of New York was altogether too lax for the good of the denomination. This has been accounted for in many ways. One Western paper waxed eloquent at one time on the doctrinally corrupting effects of associating with the men of great wealth in New York city, and spoke darkly of several ministers it might name who had married rich wives, and were naturally, therefore, somewhat shaky on the tougher doctrines. The commoner explanation, however, has been the influence of New England, and especially of New England Congregationalism, upon the New York Presbyterian churches. There has been no little muttering over the tendency of those churches to draw upon the Congregational pulpit for their ministers. Thus Dr. William Adams, who was so long the pastor of the Madison Square Church, was of New England and Congregational origin. So was his successor, who had no sooner removed to Andover as a professor than he fell violently under suspicion of heresy, even according to the looser Congregational standards. His successor, the present pastor, was also a New England Congregationalist, and has given almost greater offence to Western sensibilities than Prof. Briggs himself, by his audacious repudiation of those parts of the Westminster Confession which he does not fancy. Many other cases of the kind could be cited, and are cited with a great deal of indignation by Presbyterians in the West and in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, as a sufficient reason for the toleration of so dangerous a man as Prof. Briggs all these years. Whatever may be said to this, no well-informed person will deny that if Prof. Briggs had been a member of the Presbytery of New Brunswick or Philadelphia or Pittsburgh, he would have been convicted of heresy long ago.

All these conditions must be taken into account in estimating the future of this famous case. In the present temper of the denomination at large it is perfectly idle to say, as some make haste to say, that this is the end of the whole affair. A great tactical advantage is undoubtedly left with Prof. Briggs, but it will not avail him finally unless the general sentiment of the Church shall undergo a great change before the reviewing ecclesiastical courts have a chance to pass upon the action of the New York Presbytery. We are much mistaken if the immediate effect of that action will not be a burst of anger in the denominational organs of the conservatives, over what they will call the cowardly attitude revealed by it. The peace of the church demands the cessation of the trial? What, then, they will say, becomes of the principle, First pure, then peaceable? The Presbytery has not put Prof. Briggs right, but itself wrong, they will be sure to say. And if they could get their hands on the matter at once, they would make short work of it. Still, the element of time is very strongly in favor of Prof. Briggs. Under the usual methods of procedure, his case could not come before the General Assembly sooner than a year from next May. In the interval many things may happen. Perhaps by that time scholarship and high personal character may win as great a victory in the church at large as they did last week in the Presbytery. Who knows that, in the course of eighteen months, many men may not be found to disclaim, as Dr. Van Dyke did, all knowledge of what takes place beyond the grave, as

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long as they are this side the grave, and hence to refuse to prosecute a man for heresy because his guess differs from theirs?

THE NEW COPYRIGHT LAW.

THE so-called International Copyright Act took effect July 1, 1891, and it is a matter of interest to know just what are its practical results. It should be borne in mind that this is not original copyright legislation, but an alteration of our copyright law as codified in 1870 and embodied in the Revised Statutes as chapter sixty, and as amended by the acts passed in 1874 and 1882. It is well, therefore, first to determine what provisions of the old law remain unchanged by the new statute.

In the first place, there is no change as regards the things which can be copyrighted. They remain as before: books, maps, charts, dramatic or musical compositions, engravings, cuts, prints, photographs or negatives of photographs, paintings, drawings, chromos, statues, statuary, and models or designs intended to be perfected as works of the fine arts. The copyright upon any of the above articles is to be secured, also, by the same class of persons, namely, the authors, inventors, designers, or proprietors of any of them, and their executors, administrators, or assigns. The legal period of copyright protection remains unchanged, viz., two terms of twenty-eight and fourteen years respectively, and nothing in the language of the new act would seem to affect the construction heretofore given to the provisions of the law as to the duration of copyright, whereby the second term of fourteen years cannot be acquired by the copyright proprietor (that is to say, the assignee of the author), but accrues solely for the benefit of the author if living, or his widow or children, if he is dead. Coming, in natural sequence, to the formalities required by the statute in order to obtain a copyright, we find important changes resulting from the new legislation, but the following provisions remain unaltered: (1.) A printed title of any article copyrighted, which can be reproduced by mechanical means, and two copies of such article, must be deposited in the Copyright Bureau at Washington; while (2.), of artistic productions wholly or mainly the direct product of the author, a description of the article together with a photograph of it must be sent to the same depository. (3.) The fees for recording copyright entries, for giving a copy of such record (fifty cents in each case), and for recording an assignment of copyright, and for furnishing a copy of such assignment (one dollar in each case), remain unchanged; but by the new law a special fee of one dollar is charged to a foreign author for entering his claim of copyright.

The various provisions of the present law establishing the Copyright Bureau, and defining the duties of the Librarian of Congress in relation to the Copyright Office, remain unchanged, but that officer is given an additional duty to perform, to which reference will be made further on. The provisions concerning penalties for non-compliance with the law, or for making false claim of copyright, or for fraudulent representation of dramatic works, are also unchanged, while all the provisions relating to copyright suits are left in force, as are also the regulations regarding assignments of copyrights and the minor stipulation that postmasters shall, if requested, give receipts for copyright deposits. Section 4967 of the Revised Statutes, which gives protection to manuscripts, is changed only by striking out the words which have heretofore limited the protection to manuscripts which were the property of citizens of the United States or residents therein. This is also the case as regards the two sections of the Revised Statutes (4964 and 4965) designed to protect the proprietor of literary and artistic property against fraudulent reprinting and importation.

Turning to the changes effected by the new law, we have first to notice the difference in phraseology whereby all the words in the existing copyright statute which limited the granting of copyright solely to citizens or residents of the United States, have been struck out. This erasure would virtually extend the protection accorded by the statute to literary and artistic property to the productions of all authors and artists, no matter what might be their citizenship or place of residence; but a final clause was added to the new law by the House of Representatives' Committee, whereby the new act is limited to apply only to the citizens or subjects of such foreign nations as permit copyright to our citizens. The change which is next in importance is that relating to dramatization and translation, whereby authors are granted the exclusive right to dramatize and translate their works for the entire forty-two-years' term of copyright. This is a radical change from the old law, and is the one particular in which the copyright legislation of the United States is more favorable to the author than is that of other nations. The third noticeable change effected by the new law is that certain articles can no longer secure copyright within the United States at all unless they are manufactured in the United States. These articles are books—concerning which it is stipulated that the copies required to be deposited in the Library of Congress to perfect the claim of copyright must be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States, or from plates made therefrom"—and photographs, chromos, and lithographs, of which the copies deposited must be from "negatives or drawings on stone made within the limits of the United States, or from transfers made therefrom." This stipulation of home manufacture applies to the articles named whether they are the productions of foreigners or of citizens of the United States. A minor alteration is that which requires this deposit of copies to be made not later than the day of publication "in this or any foreign country," in lieu of within ten days, as was the case before.

The law as it stood secured the author only against the importation and sale of unlawful reprints, but in order to give full effect to the stipulation of American manufacture it was deemed desirable also to bar the importation of authorized editions made beyond the limits of the United States. To this end the importation of any book, chromo, lithograph, or photograph, or any plates of the same "not made from type set, negatives, or drawings on stone made within the limits of the United States" is prohibited. This inclusive prohibition, however, is subject to certain exceptions of decided importance to book-buyers. Thus the importation is allowed of (a) books, engravings, photographs, maps, and charts printed more than twenty years; (b) books and pamphlets printed exclusively in languages other than English; (c) books and music in raised print, used exclusively by the blind; (d) books, etc., imported for the use of the United States, or for the Library of Congress; (e) books, maps, lithographic prints, and charts for incorporated institutions of learning; (f) books belonging to persons from foreign countries, if actually used not less than one year; (g) books bought (not more than two copies at one time) by persons for their private use; and (h) newspapers and magazines which do not contain any copy right matter other than such as is printed with the author's sanction. To aid in enforcing this prohibition of importation, the Librarian of Congress is directed to prepare weekly lists of all articles entered for copyright, as to which the copyright has been completed by deposit of two copies made or produced in the United States; these being virtually lists of books and other articles whose importation is prohibited except as allowed under the exceptions enumerated above.

The Copyright Act was passed March 3, 1891, and on May 7 the Department of State forwarded two copies of it to each of our Ministers abroad, requesting the transmission of one copy to each foreign Government, with the statement that the benefits of the statute were to be extended to the citizens of foreign States only after a proclamation by the President, to be issued under conditions specified in section 13 of the Act, which reads as follows:

> "That this act shall only apply to a citizen or subject of a foreign State or nation when such foreign State or nation permits the citizens of the United States of America the benefit of copyright on substantially the same basis as its own citizens; or when such foreign State or nation is a party to an international agreement which provides for reciprocity in the granting of copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States of America may, at its pleasure, become a party to such agreement. The existence of either of the conditions aforesaid shall be determined by the President of the United States by proclamation made from time to time as the purposes of this act may require."

This section was drafted under the impression that a proclamation might issue immediately upon the passage of the act making it effective for the benefit of the citizens of all countries parties to the International Copyright Union, and on May 29 the Swiss Minister made inquiry at the De-

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partment of State to ascertain whether this would be done. The reply was that the Department had not been assured that the type-setting requirement in the new law would not be an obstacle to our Government becoming a party to the Berne treaty, whereupon the Swiss Minister telegraphed, on June 21, to the Swiss Federal Council to ask whether the United States could be admitted to the Convention without a modification of the recent Copyright Act. A telegraphic response, dated June 23, was to the effect that it would be difficult to admit the United States into the International Copyright Union with the American-manufacture stipulation in force, and proposed submitting the question to the independent countries of the Union. On June 27, Mr. J. B. Moore, then Third Assistant Secretary of State, submitted a report to the President on the construction of section 13, which, together with the text of the act, and the President's proclamation, has been printed. Mr. Moore discusses the two conditions contained in section 13 at some length. Disposing of the second condition first, he takes the ground that unless the United States can be admitted to the Berne Convention without further legislation, it cannot be maintained that it may become a party to that Convention "at its pleasure"; and as no assurance has been given to the United States that it can become a party to the Berne Convention so long as the type-setting clause is contained in its law, no extension of the Copyright Act to citizens or subjects of the signatories of that Convention can take place until the parties to the treaty shall decide that the legislation of the United States entitles our Government to the privilege of accession at its request.

Under the first (reciprocity) condition of section 13, four countries have applied for an extension of the benefits of the act to their citizens, viz., Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Switzerland, and in the case of each Mr. Moore decides that the act may be declared in force, on the ground that their laws grant to citizens of the United States copyrights identical with or substantially the same as those enjoyed by their own subjects. Accordingly the President's proclamation of July 1, 1891, extends the Copyright Act to the citizens or subjects of the four countries named.

GREENLAND IN SUMMER.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22, 1891.

To the vast majority of summer tourists a diversion in favor of Greenland would be considered as unreasonable as any plan for a summer campaign could well be made to appear. Not even by that class of *voyageurs* who annually trouble their brains in the attempt to discover a land where no travelling brother had previously set foot, has the thought of such a trip been seriously entertained. The name of Greenland, albeit it implies the existence of meadows and pastures green, is in itself repellent—not a name that charms, like Chamounix, the Matterhorn, or the Riviera. In the popular mind, Greenland is a synonym for ice and icebergs, and little else; a journey thither is a journey to a region which offers only hardships of travel and the prospect of a non-return. Doubtless this estimate of a little-known country is derived from the narratives of reliable travellers and the record of disaster which, perhaps more than anything else, has thus far distinguished arctic exploration; but, whether founded on description or merely upon the fanciful web of supposed knowledge, this conception of a country stretching over not less than 1,600 miles of latitude is singularly inaccurate. It is true that there is ice, and much of it, in this great northern land mass; and it is none the less true that in winter (and on the greater elevations also in summer) the temperature descends to the not very comfortable level of —50° or —60° F. But the picture is not complete in this one aspect alone. Contrast with the winter snows the charming meadows of summer, with their delight of mountain pink, buttercup and poppy, of heath and harebell—a vision of loveliness not surpassed even in the far-famed upper valleys of Switzerland. Occasional butterflies, gleaming with the lustre of the poppy and anemone, flit lazily across the mild sunshine, dropping their shadows over forests of diminutive birch and willow. To the ear comes the music of thousands of mosquitoes, mingling with, but not drowning, the sounds of babbling brooks and tumbling cascades, *to which the melting snows have given* birth. Far and near over the Greenland waters hundreds of icebergs, like huge masses of statuary, dot a surface only less blue than the Mediterranean at Villefranche, while the sky above has the tranquillity and intensity of Neapolitan better days. To all this add a temperature of some 40°–50° in the shade, or 65°–75° in the sun, and we round off the picture much as the writer recently experienced it on the island of Disko, on approximately the 69th parallel of latitude.

Disko is in many ways the garden-spot of Greenland, but there are numerous localities, *both north and south, which are only less* enjoyable. For hundreds of miles beyond, or nearer to the Pole, the landscape still presents much the same general features that we find in the more favored regions of the south. Bold mountain prominences, broken through at short intervals by the great tongues of ice which radiate off from the distant and hazy ice-fields of the interior, abruptly contour the country. Long slopes of ravine-snow here and there descend close to the water, but more commonly little or none of this "garb of winter" is met with below the 1,500–2,000-foot level. To this altitude, therefore, the Alpinist, or even the mountaineer of most limited resources, will find no impediment to his search after points of view; and even the botanist will not have passed beyond the bounds of his own particular realm. Many are the plants that bathe in the first waters of the melting snows, and not a few have stolen from the rainbow its brightest hues. To the very border of the ice these plants crawl up, contesting each foot in the short period of their struggle for existence.

Beyond all follows the great ice-cap, with its endless sweep of prairie-like rolls and undulations—a picture of lonely desolation probably not matched in any other part of the earth's surface. A series of gentle rises carries the eye far into the interior, until in the dim distance, possibly three-quarters of a mile or a full mile above sea-level, it no longer distinguishes between the chalky sky and the gray-white mantle which locks in with it. No lofty mountain peak rises out of the general surface, and but few deep valleys or gorges bight into it; but roll follows roll in gentle sequence and in such a way as to annihilate all conceptions of space and distance. This is the aspect of the great "ice-blink." It is not the picture of a wild and tempestuous nature, forbidding in all its details, but of a peaceful and long-continued slumber. We tread the snowy mantle much as we should in winter cross over one of our meadow-lots; the foot sinks mildly into the granular névé, but only to find a solid base at some four or five inches beneath the surface. No more delightful wandering can be had than that which is held out, in a clear summer day, by the low-level Greenland ice. To be able to roam about Nature's grandest solitude without either guide or path, in a temperature which is both mild and invigorating, and without a night to mark off periods of light and darkness, is a privilege which even the most travelled of travellers cannot fail to appreciate.

But if this is Greenland, whence originates the popular supposition that the region holds out only terrors to the wanderer to its shores? Is it that travellers exaggerate the dangers of arctic exploration, or merely that the mind has not well read between the lines of their narrations? Probably both conditions are in a measure true. It is but natural that a narrative should deal more emphatically with experiences that are both novel and striking than with things commonplace, and it is therefore not surprising that much of what is of equal importance among the latter is made to give way to the former. Yet the careful follower of Kane and Hayes will not fail to find that these explorers have done full justice to the peaceful aspects of their arctic wanderings, and others like them have but repeated their own experiences. The fact is, Greenland and the arctic north have two phases in their existence—the one of summer, when the cheerful side of Nature is turned uppermost, and the other of winter, when, as almost everywhere else, the cup of Nature yields but an empty draught. *It is the winter garb of the icy* north that is mainly impressed upon our minds.

A summer tour to Greenland, even to the far North—to the 75th parallel of latitude, or thereabouts—and embodying in its realization neither hardship nor danger, could be arranged annually with much of the certainty of a transatlantic trip. During the latter part of July and throughout the whole of August the coast is mainly free of ice, and even the passage of the much-dreaded Melville Bay can very generally be effected during this season of the year without danger from a "*nip*," and frequently with not so much as an acre of ice to interfere with the traveller's journey. Once beyond Cape York, the free North Water opens up a passage to the 79th or the 80th parallel of latitude, or to within some 700 miles of the Pole. In the course of such a trip the traveller would see much that is novel and interesting, much that is grandly picturesque, and still more that is striking in its deviation from the rest of the earth. A country inhabited by a race of people so remarkable as are the Eskimos is always worthy of a visit, especially at a time when a greatly increasing interest in the science is fostering the study of ethnology. But merely in the contemplation of the forms of the almost endless number of icebergs, the vacation tourist would probably consider himself amply repaid for a journey to this easily-reached land of the midnight sun, with its almost numberless glaciers, its sky-splitting mountains, and a boundless ice-cap. The artist, too, will find here abundant suggestion for his brush and palette.

The day is probably not far distant when

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the tourist will regularly find his way to these supposed inhospitable shores, and if not to a point very far north, at least to some distance beyond the Arctic Circle, where all that Greenland presents can be enjoyed with advantage, from the midnight sun and aurora to the Eskimos, glaciers, fjords, and icebergs. The climate, too, of the lower tracts is somewhat pleasanter, for although even as far north as Melville Bay the temperature at night will, in the summer months, descend but little below the freezing point, around about Disko a delicious 40° or more renders the wearing of an overcoat both unnecessary and undesirable. Neither arctic furs nor sleeping-bags need thus enter into the calculation of such a journey, on which, under ordinarily favorable conditions, the traveller can enter with the freedom of a transatlantic tour to the North Cape or Stockholm. As yet there is scarcely a means of communication with Greenland except by whalers and the vessels of the Danish fleet plying between Copenhagen and Godhavn (or Christianshaab and Upernavik); but a summer demand would soon establish the supply, just as it did in the case of tourist communication with the Nile, Iceland, and the North Cape. Greenland, while perhaps not quite as hospitable as the north of Norway, presents much more of general interest and of that which may be considered absolutely unique than that now much-frequented region.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

GERMAN SOCIALISTS IN COUNCIL.

DRESDEN, October 26, 1891.

THE German Socialists held their annual Congress at Erfurt, October 14–21, and a remarkable meeting it was for a stranger to see. We speak of "red revolutionists," and the revolutionists accept the color. The hall blazed with red. The presiding officer sat at a table covered with red. Huge red banners hung from the wall. On red shields against the galleries were inscribed the great names and dates of Socialism—the storming of the Bastille in 1789, the Paris Revolution of 1848, and the abrogation of the Socialist law in Germany in 1890. At one end of the hall were busts of Lassalle and Marx, crowned with laurel. Over the stage swung a long banner, on one end of which was the text from Marx: "Workmen of all lands, unite"; and, on the other, this extraordinary adaptation of Scripture proposed by Lassalle: "The working people are the rock on which the Church of the future must be built." Between these two, one read the brief but important commentary on both of them, "Knowledge is Power." At four long tables running down the hall sat some two hundred and fifty delegates from all parts of Germany, representing this year about one and a half million voters. They were for the most part neither long-haired nor wild-eyed persons, nor yet horny-handed sons of toil, but patient and respectable-appearing Germans, quite above the ranks of manual labor. Each, like a bona-fide legislator, had his documents and portfolio before him, and the whole scene was as business-like as a Town Council. Beer was to be had at the sides of the hall, but it was plainly not "good form" even for the most radical revolutionist to have anything before him more stimulating than water. In fact, I saw more water drunk in one session of the Socialists than I have seen in six months together elsewhere in Germany. In the throng might be discerned a half-dozen women delegates, and the well-appearing and well-dressed wives of Bebel and Von Vollmar had conspicuous seats.

At the high table sat the leaders, Bebel, Liebknecht, Singer, Von Vollmar, and a few others, who—as has just been proved—will need all their force and ability to keep the party united under them. Bebel is a fiery little man, of wit and keenness rather than eloquence, and not unreasonably attacked by the Opposition as the dictator of the party. Liebknecht, its most scholarly leader, made a journey through the United States in 1887, which he describes in a pleasant volume called 'A Look at the New World,' and in which—as he writes—his likeness to Mr. Blaine was often observed. He speaks with deliberation and thoughtfulness, and appeals rather to the intelligence of his party than, like Bebel, to its passions. Singer, the President of the meeting, is a strange figure in such company, being a prosperous manufacturer, with a large watch-chain and a waistcoat, where, as the Irishman said of the English Bishop, "every button was doing its duty." Still more striking is the presence of Von Vollmar, an aristocrat among the democracy, a soldierly and eloquent man, perhaps the most effective speaker of them all, and a dangerous person—as was seen in this meeting—to attempt to discipline or suppress. Strangest of all in this strange assembly was the reminder of other days, so lately passed away, when all such free discussion of radical change was a criminal act, and when these very leaders more than once suffered imprisonment and exile for their creed. Close by the side of the presiding officer still sat at every session a sergeant of police in full uniform, and two special reporters for the Government took full notes of the proceedings.

One feature of business method I had already noticed at a Congress of English co-operators, and in this meeting at Erfurt it again added greatly both to decorum and to the advance of business. The whole order of business, with the report of the Council, was put in print before the meeting and distributed to the members. Each man therefore followed the proceedings with prepared intelligence. Any person wishing to speak sends his name to the President, and is called in his turn when the subject of business is reached. No amendment is entertained except with notice given. The method tends strongly to suppress unpremeditated talk and to give plain minds a full understanding of each question. The report of the Council thus presented announced the receipt during the past year of about $54,000, a sum which, in the present poverty of the laboring classes in Germany, is a substantial pledge of their loyalty. Of this sum $8,000 had been spent for agitation, $2,500 for the relief of individuals, $2,000 for election contests, $1,500 for defending legal actions, $4,000 for administration, and $3,800 for the support of representatives in the Reichstag at an allowance per man of $1.50 a day. The report further states that there are now sixty-nine party newspapers in Germany, of which twenty-seven appear daily, twenty-six three times a week, six twice a week, and ten once a week. A new scientific review, *Die Neue Zeit*, is to be endowed, to appear at Stuttgart. There are, still further, a weekly educational journal and two comic papers.

The Erfurt meeting was anticipated with the greatest interest both by the friends and the opponents of German Socialism. Its friends welcomed the Congress as the first opportunity for full announcement of the complete revolutionary programme, and its enemies fervently hoped that this liberty of discussion would bring to light the inner schisms of the party. Both anticipations were justified. On the one hand, the programme was set forth in great detail and finally adopted without debate; but, on the other hand, the whole six days were devoted to hot debate between the wings of the party, ending—no doubt to the great satisfaction of the Imperial Government—in at least one important secession. In preparing the party programme, the Council made one new departure. They abandoned the plan of productive societies with State credit, on which Lassalle laid so much weight; and this enterprise, as Bebel announced, is now regarded as "outgrown." So far the party leaves Lassalle and goes over to Marx, who always opposed this scheme. For the rest, the programme contains, first, a statement of the final goal towards which the movement is directed; and, second, a series of immediate demands in the interest of the working class. The statement of principles, slightly abbreviated, is as follows: "Nothing but the transformation of private ownership of the means of production—lands, mines, tools, raw materials, machines, and food—into common ownership, and the corresponding transfer of production itself to the control and interest of all, can make of modern industry a source of blessing to the workmen instead of a source of misery and oppression." How this transformation is to be made, or how, when the change is made, the new commonwealth is to be governed, is not announced in this report. On these points, which are the subject of so many programmes and romances, the German Socialists are discreetly silent. They proceed at once to what they call "immediate" matters, or methods of temporary relief which they propose to gain through legislation.

In their statement of principles and purposes the two aspects of the movement are formally distinguished from each other, with no plainly indicated plan for uniting the two. On the one hand is the final end of effort, the revolution of the present social order, and on the other hand is the list of palliative measures; but it is a long way from one to the other. Almost all the immediate remedies proposed might be brought to success and yet leave the constitution of society practically unchanged. Most of these measures, indeed, such as woman's suffrage, proportional representation, free education, and elected judges, are already in force in one part or another of the United States, without stirring that country as a whole from its position as the least socialistic of modern States. Here, then, in this distinction between end and means, lay the obvious risk of division in the Socialist ranks. On the one hand, the Radicals might say: "Why temporize with these petty legislative remedies when we set before ourselves a complete social revolution? Why agitate for an eight-hour day, or for free apothecaries, when what we really stand for is universal liberty and communal ownership? The oppressed masses ask for the bread of a new social order, and we give them the stone of parliamentary reform." On the other hand, the Conservative might argue: "If you talk to the average workingman of an ideal Socialist State, it will seem to his ears as far away a blessing as what the preacher tells him of heaven. What he wants is an immediate remedy for his personal distress. In the foreground of the movement, therefore, must be set such things as the most ignorant laborer can see to be for his own good. Give him shorter hours, free education, and a free Sunday, attach him thus to the party by immediate self-interest, and then by degrees indoctrinate him with the large philo-

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sophy of society which discloses to us our final goal."

Precisely here came the split at Erfurt. On the one hand was the small group who for four days were the subject of hot attack under the name of the "Berlin Opposition." They prefer, for their own part, to be known as the "Young Democracy," and they concentrate their abuse on the "Old Guard," who thus far hold the power. Bebel they taunted as a dictator. He was, they insisted, in the pay of the Government. The party was held back by him to mere political opportunism. It could no longer be called a Socialist party, it was nothing but a party of parliamentary reform. Each such alleviation of present conditions only strengthened the present social order. It was for true Socialists to have no part in any such political questions, but to agitate directly for the "End-Ziel" of revolution. Bebel, of course, retorted that these irreconcilables were simply conspiring to get power in the party, and wanted to sit on the platform in his place; and this jealousy is more than probable. But the Radicals certainly had the great advantage in debate of being logically right. Thus, for instance, they held the only logical doctrine in a vital question which kept pressing to the front—the question of a possible European war. The Young Democracy maintained that Socialists ought to welcome international war, and should, when it came, refuse to take part in it, but let the resulting wreck of the present order come, and then step in with the new programme. Bebel, on the other hand, defends national unity against international Socialism. If, as he said, the Socialists stand aloof in the next war, they may suddenly find themselves in the hands of Russia, and their hopes would then be further than ever from realization. "Yes!" retorted the extremists, "but if, on the other hand, the war happens to be with France, then among our enemies will be the very men with whom at Brussels, only a few months ago, we swore eternal friendship." It was a clear issue between the logic of the situation and practical politics, and the German Government must notice with much satisfaction the position of the Socialist leaders. Dreams of a new social order may be lightly regarded by Caprivi, but, in the present unstable equilibrium of Europe, the possible contingency of a "strike" of half-a-million of soldiers just when needed for active service is worth consideration. The little group of five who thus for eight sessions of the Congress refused to be diplomatic, and insisted on being logical, were finally disposed of by a vote that they should present their grievances to a select committee. This they refused to do, and with much dramatic effect closed their portfolios and left the hall and the party; and, on their return to Berlin, were received and endorsed by a meeting of several thousand persons, as the anti-Bebel, true-blue—or rather blood-red—representatives of the movement.

At the opposite end of the Socialist problem lay the issue which occupied what was left of the meeting. The eloquent Von Vollmar had lately, at Munich, set forth the opportunist doctrine as the best diplomacy. The party, he had said, must, first of all, increase its members. It must, therefore, capture the whole working-vote. To do this it must emphasize immediate reforms, and it must have little to say of radical remedies from which the uninitiated would shrink. Only when the party was thus vastly larger could it demand the great things which lay beyond. Against this view, as against its opposite, the present leaders held out as long as possible. They regarded it as a new programme, growing out of the repeal of the Socialist law; and they insisted that no such moderate policy should be encouraged. They suggested that the conservatism of Von Vollmar was simply due to his own easy circumstances of life, and that the permissive policy of the present Government was more dangerous to Socialism than the suppressive policy of Bismarck. Liebknecht distinctly said that if he had to choose between using steam or brakes on his train, he preferred steam, and that if he must stand either for the opportunism of Von Vollmar or for the abandoning of all politics, as proposed by the Radicals, he for his part must be counted with the Berlin Opposition. A vote of protest against the view of Von Vollmar was proposed and was defended by Bebel. But the party was not ready to deal with so important a person as summarily as it had with the hot youths from Berlin. In spite of Bebel's personal appeal, the motion against Von Vollmar was defeated, and a second secession from the party was prevented. The Conservatives were held in the ranks by the defeat of the Centre.

Such was the general issue of these prolonged discussions. The result of the meeting is variously estimated by the different political parties of Germany. The Conservative press points out with satisfaction that free speech led to a free fight, but it does not notice the equally important fact that free speech on the part of the Conservatives was not permitted to exclude them. The Socialist newspapers justly dwell on the size and power of the party, and on its capacity for intelligence and self-control, but they do not call attention to its discords. Spectators at the Congress might have been variously moved. Those who were inclined to scoff at such proceedings would have found much to stir their sense of humor. When Bebel, in answer to questions, calmly stated that though he could not tell when the revolution would come, he thought it might happen in three or five years, and that at any rate some of those present would live to see it, one could hardly help smiling at the accepting on such short notice of "so large a contract." When, again, the meeting broke up, there were some amusing scenes at the railway station, which a correspondent of the *National Zeitung* describes. Singer, the President, stood in the crowd, permitting the waiter to bring him a light—most undemocratic conduct, says the reporter—and then asks of his friends, "Are you going with me to Berlin?" The train arrives, and while the working-class delegates clamber into the third and fourth-class compartments, Singer, the leveller of social distinctions, throws himself down on the velvet cushions of a first-class coupé. "So the Socialists, too," says the *National Zeitung*, "are human!"

But, after all, the main impression made on at least one spectator—and, so far as I know, the only witness of the Congress not directly concerned with its affairs—was that of the pathetic isolation in which the working-class in Germany, as in most countries, is placed. Here were the representatives of the great majority of hand-laborers throughout Germany, seriously trying to devise plans for those better conditions of life which their brethren so sorely need. But to whom could they look for guidance? They were almost wholly in the hands of a few men, who may be honest, but who are certainly unfit for judicious leadership—men who are simply agitators and politicians, with no training in the complex questions with which they have to deal. Beyond these leaders the whole movement is either tabooed or unnoticed. Few newspapers had anything to say of the proceedings at Erfurt. Most good citizens spoke of the meeting with horror. No competent adviser has so much as tried to meet the workingmen on their own ground. When the German Socialists meet before elections, they publicly invite their opponents to debate the matter with them; but no one goes. Not a single statesman has the confidence of the workingmen, not a single economist has approached them with counsel. No Christian minister has been able to make his Gospel seem to them a better message than the "good news" they hear of a coming social chaos. It has become a part of the creed of the working-class that Government, religion, and political economy are all alike their enemies. Every man's hand seems against them, and they mass their forces against the whole body of respectable opinion. Such isolation is not only pathetic, it is a reproach to the scholars, statesmen, and clergy of any civilized land.

FRANCIS G. PEABODY.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS ELECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While the election of Gov. Russell is an important event, it is at least equally important that its significance should be clearly brought out. The first thing to be noted is the power of personality as an agent in politics. In spite of the energy of the traditional protest, the people are always much more interested in men than in measures. Instead of railing at them, therefore, for this incurable weakness, the part of wisdom is to provide them with good men instead of bad men to run after—a rule which, simple as it seems, is almost always reversed in our so-called practical politics.

The next lesson is, that the way to carry reforms is to identify them with persons, so as to combine the enthusiasm for men with the enthusiasm for measures. Of course, it is Gov. Russell's popularity which has carried the election; but that he has insisted on the false position of the Governor, has resisted the arbitrary exercise of power by the Council in rejecting his appointments, and has protested against the government of the State by irresponsible commissions over which the Governor has no control—I do not think these things have hurt his popularity, and I am very sure that his popularity has helped the things. The reflex action is to come. Personal popularity is evanescent. The people, having endorsed him this time, will think they have done enough, and will become indifferent. One more term would be the utmost extent of their good will. An election to Congress would change the scene from the State to a district. If he wishes to establish his hold, he must prosecute the reforms in vigorous earnest, and so make them work for him.

It may be asked, Why these particular reforms and not more practical ones, such as civil service, temperance, education, prison or law reform? The answer to that question has suggested itself in reading an article in the *Forum* by Mr. Herbert Welsh on "The Degradation of Politics in Pennsylvania." He narrates with some pride how a vigorous movement of Independents succeeded in showing that the whole Government of the State and of the city of Philadelphia was in the hands of a gang of the most abandoned thieves,

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After discussing some mild expedients of remedy, he adds that, after all, everything depends on the people, and that, if they will not come to the rescue, nothing can be done. I protest most earnestly against this implied accusation of the people. I say that the Government of Pennsylvania as well as of Massachusetts, of Philadelphia as well as of New York and Boston, is so organized that the mass of the people have very little voice in the matter, that they do not see what is going on or where the difficulty lies, and, if they did, are wholly unable to apply the remedy. If the ordinary business principles which are in force in every successful commercial house in the country were applied to public affairs, honest men would come into power and the knaves be ejected as a matter of course. Therefore it is that the alpha and the omega of our efforts should be organization; that the reforms which Gov. Russell has taken as his starting-point, and which, if but a first instalment, are the basis of all others, he should adhere to and prosecute for the sake of his own success as well as theirs.

May I point to the third lesson from the election? It is as to how State affairs can—in off years—be made more interesting than national. The burden of the Republican campaign was assumed by the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, stimulated, as is well known, by his ambition for a seat in the Senate of the United States. He has strained every nerve to push State affairs into the background, and to divide the voters on strict national party lines. As regards the Council and the Legislature, where there was no serious personal opposition, he carried his point; but, as to the Governorship, Mr. Russell, putting personality and cause together, has beaten him as fairly as ever a man was beaten. Shall we not lay the instruction to heart?

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

BOSTON, November 7, 1891.

ABBOT AGAINST ROYCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Francis Ellingwood Abbot makes substantially the following charges against Prof. Josiah Royce:

(1.) That Prof. Royce libelled Dr. Abbot, and that maliciously.

(2.) That Prof. Royce used unfair means to stifle Dr. Abbot's reply.

I propose to consider impartially what the verdict of students of philosophy ought to be regarding these public accusations against one of the most eminent of their number.

The charge of libel has two specifications, viz.:

(1.) That Prof. Royce warned the general public against Dr. Abbot as a blatant and ignorant pretender in philosophy.

(2.) That Prof. Royce accused Dr. Abbot of plagiarizing Hegel at second hand.

From the point of view of propriety of conduct in a student of philosophy, the only adequate excuse for the first of these acts would be that the fact proclaimed was so unmistakable that there could be no two opinions about it on the part of men qualified by mature study to pass judgment on the merits of philosophical writers. In case the act were not so justified, the offence would be enormously aggravated if it were dictated by malice. The first question, then, is: Did Prof. Royce, as a matter of fact, so warn the public against Dr. Abbot? He certainly did, unequivocally and with full consciousness of what he was about; that is the unmistakable import of his whole article in the *International Journal of Ethics* for October, 1890.

The next question is whether it is so plainly true that Dr. Abbot is a blatant and ignorant pretender in philosophy that it is impossible competent men should think otherwise? So far is that from being the case that philosophers of the highest standing, such men as Kirchheiss in Germany, Renouvier in France, and Seth in England, have drawn attention to the remarkable merit of his work. I am not personally intimate with Dr. Abbot, and am far from being a partisan of his doctrines, but as an humble student of philosophy, endeavoring to form my estimations with the eye of truth, I recognize in him a profound student and a highly original philosopher, some of whose results are substantive additions to the treasury of thought; and I believe that the prevalent opinion among competent men would be that Prof. Royce's warning is an unwarranted aspersion. Next, what excuse was there for such conduct, what motive prompted it? Prof. Royce and Dr. Abbot have their rival ways out of agnosticism. Both start from the same premises to come in the main (at least, so Royce says) to the same conclusion. Shall we say, then, that a passer-by cannot loiter near Dr. Abbot's shop, attracted by the placard, "THE WAY AND THE TRUTH," without Prof. Royce's rushing out and shouting from across the street that he can offer the same article at a lower figure? No; for how far a spirit of rivalry may have influenced him no man can know, Prof. Royce least of all.

Passing to the second specification, we ask: Did Prof. Royce accuse Dr. Abbot of plagiarizing Hegel? No; he only accused him of giving a maimed version of Hegel's theory of universals, naïvely supposing it to be a product of his own brain. That was no libel in the sense now considered. But, says Dr. Abbot, I have stated so clearly the antithesis between Hegel's view and mine that Prof. Royce cannot be sincere in saying they are identical. No matter; the more absurd the accusation, the less injurious; the less the truth, the less the libel. On this count Dr. Abbot is entirely in the wrong.

Passing to the second charge, we ask whether Prof. Royce used unfair means to stifle Dr. Abbot's reply? The ex-parte evidence indicates that he did contrive that Abbot's reply should be first postponed (as postponed it was over two numbers of the quarterly), and at last, as the third quarter was drawing to a close, should be excluded; in which performances Dr. Adler, the editor-in-chief, does not appear as very strong in the practical department of ethics. Afterwards Prof. Royce, through a lawyer, threatened Dr. Abbot with legal proceedings if he published his proposed reply at all.

All this would be abominable to the last degree in the case of a philosophical discussion. But then it must not be forgotten that the contention had never had that character. Prof. Royce's article was written with the avowed purpose, clearly and openly conveyed, though not by direct declaration, of ruining Dr. Abbot's reputation; and what little discussion there was was merely to subserve that purpose, not to ascertain or prove any truth of philosophy. Thus, it was a brutal, life-and-death fight from the first. Prof. Royce clearly perceived this, for he ends the article *by saying that he shows no mercy and asks none!* That's ethics. And his subsequent proceedings make it, in my judgment, as plain as such a thing can be, that his cruel purpose never left his heart. Dr. Abbot, on the other hand, stood like a baited bull, bewildered at such seemingly motiveless hostilities.

It is quite impossible not to suppose that Prof. Royce conceived it was his duty thus to destroy Dr. Abbot's reputation, and with that the happiness of his life. A critic's stern and sacred duty, and all that! Besides, it must be remembered that he is a student of ethics; and it is not to be imagined that a person can study ethics all his life long without acquiring conceptions of right and wrong that the rest of the world cannot understand.

C. S. PEIRCE.

SOME MORE "SOCIALS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The East is not disposed to acknowledge the superior fertility of the inventive mind of the West in the direction of "socials." Your article of October 15 on this subject shows that you have formed your opinion too soon; not from Chicago but from New York are to go forth the plans that will make "stiffness" impossible. In the *Christian Union* for this week, a writer tells of the means of developing the "Social Element in Church Life." I make a few selections in support of my position.

Under "impersonations" we are told: "It is quite possible to select incidents and qualities not generally known. For instance, the child life of Mahomet, or his business career, may be dwelt on. After each impersonation there should be a short recess . . . for the guessing of the name of the unknown."

Magazines are to be turned to account: "And the advertisements at the end of the magazine make a bit of fun. Sozodont, cod-liver oil, shaving soap, and cocoa are suggestive subjects."

The Chicago authoress will blush to think that she never imagined "a smelling contest: A dozen or more quart black bottles are used. Turpentine, vinegar, Pond's Extract, wintergreen, peppermint, coffee, bay rum, rose water, clove, cinnamon, ammonia, tar, and camphor are suitable for use. Each member of the company 'sniffs' and makes a list from memory."

The climax is the "Wrong-side Sociable: All the people are dressed wrong side before, with the hair drawn over the face, and a mask, home-made or otherwise, placed on the back of the head."

And thus we develop the social element in church life.

C. E. W.

BUCKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read once more in your No. 1372, p. 296, in a valuable account of Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary,' Heine's etymology of *Bücking*. The fact is, that the inventor of herring pickling was Willem Beukelsz, *i. e.*, Beukel's son. Whether Beukel stands for *pekel* (Dutch for *brine*), and was a name afterwards given, or whether *Beukel*, *Bückling*, *bokking*, *bokkem*, etc., are next of kin, is rather difficult to ascertain. The fact is, that long before Willem Beukelsz was born, as early as the fourteenth century, there was a word *bucking*, meaning smoked herring, a fish quite different in kind from pickled herring.—Yours truly,

TACO H. DE BEER.

AMSTERDAM, October 26, 1891.

Notes.

PROFESSOR NORTON is preparing for the press a volume of essays by Mr. Lowell not included in the Riverside Edition of his works. It

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was in Mr. Lowell's mind to do this before he died, but his strength failed him. Papers on Milton, Gray, and Landor, on Keats and Walton, and an address before the Modern Language Association, will make up the contents. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the publishers. They also announce 'Odes, Lyrics, and Sonnets,' selections from Lowell, Whittier, Longfellow, Tennyson, the Brownings, and Wordsworth, in their "White and Gold" series; and 'The Spirit of Modern Philosophy,' Harvard lectures by Dr. Josiah Royce.

'The Hours of Raphael in Outline,' by Miss Mary E. Williams of Salem, Mass., is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. During her many years of residence in Rome, Miss Williams kept up a search for material upon "The Hours," and, as a result of her quest, there is now presented to the public for the first time a reproduction in folio of "The Hours" taken from tracings from a book in the Romani-Sarti Library, lately bequeathed to the city of Rome. This book, or old folio pamphlet, consists solely of "The Hours" in outline, done by three old engravers who worked in concert, each producing four of the "Hours." Miss Williams discovered it simply sewed into blue paper covers, without title-page or date, with the inscription "Raf. d'Urb. inv." at the left-hand side, and the name of the engraver at the right-hand side, of each plate. Further, she found this book unknown to all the dealers in old engravings at Rome, to the curators of the Imperial Galleries at Vienna and Berlin, at the Louvre, and at the British Museum; and M. Kanka, director of calcography at the Louvre, is authority for the statement that Raphael's "Hours" in outline were absolutely unknown among the merchants of engravings in Paris. The import of this discovery is thus apparent. The new publication will also contain a reproduction from a unique old engraving, in the Royal Stamperia in Rome, of the hall in the Vatican in which the "Hours" are shown in their original position on the ceiling. This engraving was originally published by Montagnani about 1750, and its reproduction has been kindly allowed for the present work. In all there will be sixteen plates, and enough accompanying text to explain the history and detail of the new material here brought together.

A. C. Armstrong & Son, in conjunction with Elliot Stock, London, will publish "The Camden Library," a series of volumes "concerned with the antiquities of Britain," and edited by G. Laurence Gomme and T. Fairman Ordish. The first volume is already completed, and deals with the 'Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer,' containing numerous illustrations from original MSS. and the various relics preserved in the Public Record Office. Antiquities of the stage will be looked after in 'Old London Theatres,' and yet other volumes will be entitled 'English Homes in the Past,' 'Monastic Arrangement,' 'English Armor,' 'Folk-Lore,' 'Church Plate,' 'The Streams of London,' 'Miniature Portrait Painting,' etc., etc. The issue will be quarterly in three styles.

Charles Scribner's Sons will bring out the second volume of H. Morse Stephens's 'History of the French Revolution,' and 'Jesus, the Carpenter of Nazareth,' by a layman.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'The Modern Aladdin; or, the Wonderful Adventures of Oliver Munier,' written and illustrated by Howard Pyle.

The Cassells are to publish this month, simultaneously in America and England, 'Henriette Ronner: The Painter of Cat Life and Cat Characters,' by M. H. Spielmann. The volume will contain twelve full-page photogravures by Goupil; there also will be a small *édition de luxe*.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately a new edition, in two volumes, of 'Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey,' by Dean Stanley, with thirteen full-page photogravure reproductions of Railton's etchings; 'The New York Obelisk, Cleopatra's Needle,' by C. E. Moldenke; 'Dr. John Brown and his Sister Isabella'; 'A Cyclopædia of Nature's Teachings,' with an introduction by Hugh Macmillan; 'Friendly Talks with Boys' and 'Friendly Letters to Girls,' by Miss Hawley; 'Women's Thoughts for Women,' compiled by Rose Porter; and 'Unknown Switzerland,' with nineteen photographic illustrations.

Lee & Shepard have nearly ready a volume on the battle of Gettysburg, by Samuel Adams Drake, and 'Wood Notes Wild,' by the late Simeon Pease Cheney, edited by his son, John Vance Cheney, librarian of the San Francisco Public Library.

In D. Lothrop Co.'s "Story of the States" series, the volume on Massachusetts, prepared by Edward Everett Hale, will speedily appear.

The Shelley centenary, which comes next year, is already beginning to be productive of books. One of the earliest to arrive is 'Pictures from Shelley' (Macmillan). The volume, which is of folio size, contains twenty-four wood-engravings after designs by E. E. Dell. Twelve of these are suggested by "The Cloud," and the others by landscape passages in "Queen Mab," "Alastor," etc. Something has been made of Shelley's broad horizons, vagueness, and etherialization of the elements, but the work is not very satisfactory, yielding only weak and watery Turneresque effects. A portrait of Shelley, which is the frontispiece, is the best thing in the volume.

Prof. Albert S. Cook edits, with introduction and notes, Shelley's 'Defense of Poetry' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), for use in schools and colleges. The plan is the same as that of the previously issued Sidney's 'Apologie,' but the more modern language of Shelley requires of course less annotation. The editor discusses in his introduction the character of melodic prose, the resemblance between Sidney and Shelley, and the question of labor versus inspiration as the method of genius. Peacock's 'Four Ages of Poetry,' which was the occasion of Shelley's work, is given in full; and there are the usual indexes and notes grammatical and literary.

William Davenport Adams adds another to the volumes of short, gossiping miscellanies which have been popular with desultory readers, under the title 'With Poet and Player' (Armstrong). The papers are divided between literature and the stage, and are readable, though not so distinguished by out-of-the-way anecdote and quotation as some of the earlier issues. "Defoe's 'Crusoe's Reflections,'" "Mrs. Shelley's 'Last Man,'" "The Stage Rustic," "Botany on the Boards," and "Horace in England" are characteristic titles. The book is issued in the style of the "Book Lover's Library," but does not bear the name on its title-page.

Richard Malcolm Johnston publishes nine miscellaneous articles, with no great pretension to either substance or style, in a small volume, 'Studies, Literary and Social' (Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.). "Belisarius," "Madame de Staël," "Franklin," "Shakspere," and "The Schoolmaster" are titles that show the range of the book, which is, however, of a very flimsy kind, and quite out of touch with either modern scholarship or criticism.

'Elizabethan Songs in Honour of Love and Beautie' (Little, Brown & Co.) is an elegant holiday volume, perfect in paper and typography, and characteristically illustrated by E. H. Garrett, who also made the selections. Mr. Lang furnishes an introduction, in which we find nothing noticeable, but it serves its purpose well enough by indicating the relation between verse and song, and showing that they were more closely allied in the Elizabethan time than now. "Elizabethan," however, is used with a laxity of application for which there is no excuse: it is extended over the whole seventeenth century, and includes Cowley, Herrick, and Waller. The selection is very closely confined, except in Shakspere's case, to the poetry of gallantry. The illustration is meant to be decorative, and succeeds admirably in what was intended; six of the photogravures are printed in sepia, and the head and tail-pieces are often happily designed. The total effect, however, is to render the men and women theatrical, and to give to the world of the Elizabethan lover and his mistress an atmosphere of unreality—of opera, almost—that easily blends with the verse of artifice and conceit, of which the volume is mainly made.

We can now extend the list of new editions begun last week. Two works peculiarly susceptible of illustration have been elaborately treated in this manner, viz.: Howells's 'Venetian Life' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) and Wallace's 'Ben Hur' (Harpers)—each in two volumes. Mr. Howells has been assisted by several of our well-known artists, or perhaps has simply profited by their already extant drawings in water-color; and in each of his volumes we find nine aquatint copies of such originals. Their size precludes these dainty vignettes from being much more than mere ornament, and the general effect of them is undeniably pleasing. The red initial letters at the beginning of chapters are by contrast too pronounced in color, as the arabesque headpieces suffer in comparison with the letterpress. The buff and gold binding, on the other hand, is in the best of taste, and one must be fastidious not to choose or to welcome these volumes as a gift.

It is a "Garfield Edition" of 'Ben Hur' which the Messrs. Harper have undertaken, and it is so denominated because of President Garfield's praise of the story, which is attested by a facsimile of the letter containing it. For every page Mr. William Martin Johnson has supplied appropriate marginal pen-drawings of scenery and antiquities, which are sometimes truly decorative, but have on the whole a distracting effect. Much more valuable are the photogravures, twenty in all, mostly from nature, including a portrait of the author. These have been well selected and are not hackneyed. The binding is a satin-like cloth of a deep orange, not unbecoming an Oriental work, and a hinged box in leatherette has been provided as a case.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. send us an abridged edition of the 'Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah,' by the late Dr. Edersheim. The work of condensation has been done by Prof. Sanday, and the omissions seem to impair the value of the full form but slightly for the general reader. Moreover, this edition is illustrated.

'The Swan of Vilamorta' is the latest of Señora Bazán's novels to be translated by Mrs. Serrano (Cassell). Of the story itself it is to be said that it is not one of the author's happiest, she herself being witness, while the translation bears marks of haste. In a pretty care-

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ful comparison of a single chapter, we have noted only one bad blunder, but a great many failures to give the true shadings and transitions of the original. There can be no question, of course, of Mrs. Serrano's knowledge of Spanish, but she seems to make the mistake of thinking that style in a translation will take care of itself.

Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell's 'Manual of Greek Philosophy' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.), dedicated to the "Kant Club of Denver," shows careful study of German authorities, and is based chiefly on the works of Zeller and Hegel. The results are, of course, largely colored by Hegelian phraseology and nomenclature. "The quotations are from the original German," as the preface states; and it does not appear from the preface or the book that any study was made of the original Greek. In this respect the work suffers by comparison with Dr. Marshall's sketch recently noticed by us, which has about the same size and scope, but is much clearer and fresher, more readable and authentic. Such mistakes as νοὺς, δοχα (for νοῦς, δόξα), Miletus (for Meletus), "homoumeria," and "diaœtic," are symbols of occasional crudeness and inaccuracy which are almost inevitable under the circumstances. Mrs. Mitchell's is, for her opportunities, a praiseworthy study; but it is second-hand in its sources and its criticisms, and the exacting standards of education are no longer content with this kind of work, even in manuals for the beginner.

The complexion of 'Lyra Heroica: A Book of Verse for Boys,' compiled by William E. Henley (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Scribners), may be inferred from the title. Fighting by land and sea is the theme of much more than half of the selections, which begin with Agincourt. The patriotism, militant or peaceful, is mainly British, but Longfellow's "Building of the Ship" is admitted, together with war lyrics by Whittier and Walt Whitman and Bret Harte, and Mrs. Hemans's "Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers." There are mixed with these, somewhat incongruously, more elevating pieces, like "Lycidas," Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty," Wotton's "How happy is he born or taught," Ben Jonson's "It is not growing like a tree," and Sir Alfred Lyall's "Theology in Extremis," besides Herrick's "A-maying," Keats's sonnet on reading Chapman's Homer, Coleridge's "Kubla Khan," etc. As a whole, the collection is fresh and evinces poetic discrimination. Among sources overlooked, Clough should have been drawn upon for pure love of country as well as for adventure by sea and battles on land. For his "Green fields of England!" his "Peschiera," his "How in Heaven's name did Columbus get over," we could well have spared the two selections from Kipling, especially the last, "The Flag of England," which is, as Mr. Henley lets out in his note upon it, an anti-Home-Rule tract, and is by all odds the most whimsical of his choices, especially "for boys." A truly noble ending could have been furnished him from this side of the Atlantic in Mr. Woodberry's Gibraltar sonnets.

'American Football,' by Walter Camp (Harpers), is easily the first treatise on that now popular game. It is not only eminently readable, even to the tyro, but it contains suggestions based on such profound experience in the science of football that no captain or coach of any first-rate team can afford to miss the consideration of them. No one can read Mr. Camp's chapters on the historical evolution of the present American game without in a certain measure appreciating its present semi-military character, that makes its matches at once so difficult to understand and so thrilling to witness. Mr. Camp has written not only wholly without bias, but without giving himself the least credit for the present perfection of the game, though this is almost entirely due to his theoretical grasp of the possibilities and limits of football and he has at the same time made the "Yale game" famous above all others for subtle and unlooked-for strategy. The book is fully illustrated with photogravures of the most famous players of Yale, Harvard, and Princeton, who are an exceptionally fine-looking group of young men.

'A Summer in Kieff' (London: Ward & Downey), by Isabel Morris, is a fresh and lively description of a visit to a city in southwestern Russia. An attractive picture is drawn of the new town, with its "magnificent buildings, churches with Moorish domes splendidly gilt, mansions tastefully designed, universities, clubs and hotels beautiful in architecture, but all profiting by their natural setting in every shade of green, and intersected by acre on acre of gardens." Especially interesting is the account of the famous Petchersk Monastery, the *Mecca* of the Russian Church, with its singular catacombs and its rarely shown treasury, wherein are cloths studded with most precious diamonds; crosses, golden cups, and crowns, one of which contains five and three-quarters pounds of the finest pearls. The household life of the people, their servants, markets, places of amusement, and country-houses are all treated in an entertaining way. The book would have had a greater value if the trivial chapters relating to the author's journey to and from Kieff had been omitted.

Le Français, founded and edited with exceptional taste and skill by the late M. Jules Lévy of Boston, was published for the five years 1880–'85. Mrs. Lévy, whose address is Lexington, Mass., has a few sets and odd volumes to dispose of, and they are still perfectly available for self-instruction or for use in schools or in study circles. We have never met with any periodical so good for this purpose.

The third Year Book of the Brooklyn Institute has lately been issued, giving, among other things, a brief history of the Institute and an account of the work for 1890–'91. The membership now reaches about 1,500; 310 lectures were given, with a total attendance of about 56,000 persons, and all departments exhibited a healthy growth. The Institute will hereafter be known as the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. Although it is nowhere clearly stated, we understand that an account of the conditions of membership, and a list of the extended series of lectures on a large variety of subjects as arranged for the coming winter, may be obtained by addressing the Secretary.

The October Harvard University *Bulletin* contains Mr. Tillinghast's most recent "Harvard Necrology," which takes account not only of deaths of the current year, but of such as have not heretofore been recorded. In this instance it fixes for the first time the date of death of a member of the class of 1653! In the same number Dr. Charles Gross gives a classified list of books relating to British Municipal History—a selection from his bibliography, comprising nearly 4,000 titles, now almost ready for the press.

Prof. Skeat reports, in the *Athenæum* of October 24, his discovery of the source of Chaucer's translation of Boethius. The problem has been to trace the explanatory sentences and glosses with which the translation abounds; and, acting on a hint of Prof. Ten Brink's, and the English text of a MS. contained in the Cambridge University Library, already printed by Dr. Furnivall, Prof. Skeat ran down a Latin text which contains side-notes and interlinear glosses wherein is revealed "the whole of Chaucer's sources of information as to this treatise" ('De Consolatione Philosophiæ'). He gives two or three convincing specimens of the way Chaucer used both text and scholia, and concludes that, though the manuscript "cannot possibly be the very MS. which Chaucer used" (because his own translation is intercalated with the Latin text, chapter by chapter), "it is clearly a careful *copy* of it, containing all the same explanations. Only Chaucer himself, or some one keenly interested in his work, would have ordered this to be done. We here have, practically, the authentic copy, original and translation, notes and all."

Joseph Thomson, the well-known African traveller, has just returned to England, having been engaged during the last eighteen months in exploring the plateau between Lakes Nyassa and Bangweolo, in the interests of the British South African Company. He reports very favorably upon its great agricultural value and fitness for European colonization, though this he believes to be out of the question at present. By his observations he was able to correct some errors on recent maps in the situation of Lake Bangweolo, the scene of Dr. Livingstone's death. This he found to be simply a shallow backwater of the Chambesi, the source of the Congo, and to vary greatly in extent according to the season of the year. He gives an enthusiastic account of the condition of Blantyre in the Shiré Highlands, to the south of Lake Nyassa, the headquarters both of the Scotch missions and the trading company now merged in the South African Company. A large area is devoted to the cultivation of coffee, which commands the highest price in Mincing Lane, while successful experiments have been made in raising tea, sugar, tobacco, and other crops. Much attention is paid to the industrial education of the natives, who come from great distances to seek employment upon the plantations.

—A valuable contribution to political science is made by Prof. F. M. Taylor of Albion College in his Doctor's thesis entitled 'The Right of the State to be.' The problem considered by Prof. Taylor is the theoretical justification for the use of force by one or more human beings in controlling the acts of others. He plants himself firmly on the solid ground that the central conception in all ethical, political, and social philosophy is the concrete individual person. All good is measured ultimately by reference to this standard. The right of the individual to free self-determination being original, primordial, and essential, every act limiting this right demands special justification. The State is not a metaphysically necessary social entity, nor a natural organism, nor an independent person, but a group of human beings existing in certain relations to one another. There is no State-consciousness, no "group-psychology," but only the psychology of individuals as determined by their relations to the group. At the same time, there is a jural order which is absolute in the sense of not being relative to the opinion or will of any thinking subject. The solution reached by Prof. Taylor involves the principle that to every person belongs the prerogative of rule, and that among a number of persons the prerogative of final authority belongs to the fittest. As persons acting collectively are better fitted to exercise authority than isolated individuals, the right of the State is established. We cannot here undertake to criticise

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this solution, but must content ourselves with saying that it is developed with great ability, and that it is preceded by an admirable examination of the other theories that have been propounded. We have no hesitation in advising all students of political science to possess themselves of this essay, which may be had for twenty-five cents at Schoenhof's in Boston, or of J. Sheehan, at Ann Arbor, or E. W. Griffin, at Albion, Mich.

—In this connection we may call attention to an essay on the Law of Nature by the same writer, which has been reprinted from the April number of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, and may be had from the dealers named above. This essay is complementary to that just noticed, and is marked by equally careful scholarship as well as by more literary finish. Prof. Taylor comments upon the disrepute into which the *jus naturæ* has fallen in these latter days, remarking that "when one reminds himself that for nearly twenty-two centuries this doctrine had practically universal acceptance, that it was the creed of Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, Marcus Aurelius, Gaius, Augustine, Aquinas, Grotius, Hooker, Locke, and Kant, its present forlorn state is certainly somewhat noteworthy." Even reformers, who in every other epoch have appealed from the iniquitous law of man to the righteous law of nature, now insist that the State is the only source of right. "An unsympathetic observer might be tempted to remark that, so long as there remained anything of the old order to demolish, the reformer very piously appealed to eternal right against the artificial wrongs of that order; but when he has disposed of the last vestige, has perfectly cleared the ground for himself, then he promptly casts aside the conception of an order which claims ultimate supremacy, lest it should set some limit to the exercise of his own sweet will in the proposed reorganization of society." Against this prevalent tendency Prof. Taylor argues with great power that the concept of natural law is indispensable, that it is reconcilable with both intuitional and utilitarian ethics, and that the name itself is on the whole the best that can be employed. His exposure of the principal misconceptions and misrepresentations of the doctrine is clear and vigorous. Prof. Taylor would do well to work over the matter of these two essays into a volume. Such a work would constitute a most important contribution to political science, and for many reasons the views for which he contends ought to receive a formal statement in this country, such as we are convinced he is qualified to give them.

—In the report on the Canadian Archives for 1890, prepared by Douglas Brymner, is to be found much of interest to students of American history. The internal government of Canada from the peace of 1763 to the Revolution was of great importance to the colonies to the south of that province, and the Quebec Act of 1774 was one of the strongest factors in producing a revolt against the tyranny of the mother country. The formation of a constitution for the province after 1783 was of less moment to the United States at the time, but has had a far-reaching effect since. The efforts to develop the fur trade, the retention of the posts after 1783, and the preliminaries to the canal system of Canada, are among the other subjects treated. Mr. Brymner's strongest claim to our commendation is the publication of the despatches sent to Lord Dorchester by George Beckwith, the confidential agent of the British in the United States from 1787 to 1792. Beckwith had been in charge of the "secret intelligence" of the British Army during the Revolution, and was thus well fitted for the delicate mission now intrusted to him. The suspicion, on the part of the executive of the United States, of bad faith in the English made negotiation difficult. What Mr. Brymner prints, taken in connection with what is to be found in Hamilton's and Jefferson's writings, gives both sides of this informal mission, and shows the intimacies the agent formed with members of the Executive and of Congress. Beckwith's despatches are curious and interesting.

—The *Figaro* of October 24 has an article upon the emoluments of an Academician which may be read with amusement as well as with a certain interest. Each of the Forty Immortals, it appears, receives a salary of 1,200 francs a year. It makes no difference to how many of the Academies one belongs, he gets but one salary. M. Pasteur or M. Duruy receives the same *traitement* as M. Pierre Loti. The Perpetual Secretaries, however, have a slightly better chance to accumulate wealth. They have 6,000 francs a year, and some of them have lodgings also. Besides these running salaries there is a payment for attendance at each meeting, and this is arranged in a very curious fashion. *Jetons de présence* are given to each member who is in attendance and who signs the record of the day. These jetons have no fixed value, but represent that portion of 200 francs which would be expressed by a fraction having 200 for its denominator, and for its numerator the number of Academicians who were present at the séance. In other words, 200 francs is divided equally at each meeting among those who attend. If all are present, they have five francs each; if one only, he has 200. But it is not within the memory of man that only one member has appeared at a meeting. Once, however, during the war of 1870, only three were present. On an average, Academicians receive in these attendance fees not more than two or three hundred francs a year; and, in all, not more than fifteen hundred. The Academy makes no great figure in the budget.

—'Rapports inédits du Lieutenant-Général de Police René d'Argenson (1697-1715)' (Paris: Plon) is a valuable contribution to the social, political, and religious history of France during the last eighteen years of the reign of Louis XIV., and throws additional and by no means favorable light on the system of government pursued by the Grand Monarch. What we now regard as the chief functions of the police, namely, public security and the protection of life and property, was deemed by d'Argenson and his *mouchards* a matter of secondary importance. His official reports to the Minister, Count Pontchartrain, which Paul Cottin has published in full for the first time, with annotations and an admirable historical introduction, show that he was far less zealous in preventing and punishing crime than in persecuting heresy, and in promoting marriages by which the property of wealthy Protestants could be inherited by Catholics. In order to accomplish this purpose, the most arbitrary measures were adopted, innocent persons were arrested and incarcerated, their estates confiscated, and their children taken away to be educated in cloisters. If a Protestant offered his house for sale, he was immediately suspected of a desire to emigrate; a detective was commissioned to dog his steps and apprehend him in case he should attempt to leave the country. Another very important duty of the police was to watch over public morals, and especially to hush up scandals affecting the reputation of the clergy and the monastic orders. In this capacity D'Argenson was an ardent and energetic defender of the faith, but is forced to confess that many of the cloisters are "séminaires de débauche." Dissolute abbés and nuns of noble birth were the most difficult subjects he had to deal with. The first and most essential point to be considered in any case of crime was the rank of the criminal. Woe to an evil-doer of the bourgeoisie, especially if he added to his transgression the sin of heresy.

—Prof. Hoskins sends us a rejoinder on *vis viva* too long and irrelevant to print, nor is the discussion, by its nature, exactly suited to our columns. Instead of showing how he could maintain that growth is not an irreversible process in the sense in which the action of viscosity is irreversible, he holds that an irreversible process does not violate the law of *vis viva*. But an irreversible process is such that if the final velocities have their signs reversed, the equations of motion will not be satisfied by the movement of all the particles back over their previous paths with the same (reversed) velocities. Now the equations will be so satisfied unless the forces are changed by this reversal of the velocities—that is, unless they depend on the velocities. Further, if the accelerations depend on the velocities, it is easily shown that the *vis viva* cannot always be the same in the same configuration, and thus the equation of *vis viva* is violated. Therefore growth, so far as it is an irreversible process, violates this principle. It is true that the kinetical theory explains not only irreversible processes (for which it was needed), but also reversible ones (which is supererogatory). But our correspondent is surely mistaken in saying that a similar apparent violation of the law of *vis viva* admits of any acceptable explanation not based on probabilities. Friction, viscosity, diffusion, conduction, in all states of matter must be so explained.

HISTORY OF THE TITLE-PAGE.

Last Words on the History of the Title-Page; with Notes on some Colophons, and Twenty-seven Facsimiles of Title-Pages. By Andrew Pollard. London: John C. Nimmo. 1891. Royal 4to, pp. 39.

THIS entertaining book is the expansion, with new matter and illustrations, of papers previously published in the *Century-Guild Hobby-Horse* and the *Universal Review.* Its illustrations of the first substitutes for printed title-pages, as they appear in the colophons or certificates of the illuminators who completed the work of the printers, are enough to explain this feature of the usage of book-makers in the fourteenth century. The earliest colophons in printed books were made not by their printers, but by their illuminators. Our surest clues to the origin of the three early Bibles (the thirty-six-line, the forty-two-line, and Eggestein's) are furnished by the rubricators who certified in the last leaf of each book that they had completed their work on a certain date. The modesty of the printer in declining to put his name on his book may be explained by the hypothesis that the impersonality of the copyist or maker of the text was already an established usage. The copyist of the manuscript was a clerk or a

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drudge; the illuminator was the artist who alone had a right to announce his name and magnify his office. Consequently, the printer meekly followed in the path laid down by the copyist, and began the work as he did, without title-page or preface. Nor does it appear that the reader or buyer of the book needed a title-page. He could identify at a glance the few books he owned or read. Why should he demand that they be named or labelled? A separate leaf of paper for a title-page would have been a waste of material; the advertisement or personal explanation of the printer an impertinence. He wanted the text, and that only.

The printer's period of self-effacement was brief. Even before 1470, printers began to abound in the larger cities; there were rival editions of the same book, and their printers were often at variance. To get and keep the credit that was his rightful due, each printer put his name and device on his books. To recoup what he had lost by previous modesty, he asserted himself with vehemence: in poetry, and often with puns, he praised the greater accuracy of his texts and the superior beauty of his types and paper; he sneered at the scandalous workmanship of his rivals. It was soon found that the compact and unobtrusive colophon at the end of the book did not arrest the attention of the careless observer. Some printers transferred it from the last to the first leaf of the book, where it would certainly be noted, but its form was not changed. It remained, as before, a solid paragraph in small types without display.

The first title-page proper, on a separate page, bears the imprint of Ratdolt, Venice, 1476, of which Mr. Pollard gives a good illustration. This title is enclosed in an outline border; it has a red initial and a red imprint, but not one line is in capital letters. Its simplicity and beauty should have commended it to his rivals, but they were slow to imitate this model. Title-pages on separate leaves were not common before 1520, but the decorative border, with its typical illustrations, was eagerly adopted, for this was a time-honored fashion of the early illuminators. Following the practice also of the block-book printers, the borders and initials were largely in outline, so that the buyer of the book could paint them in bright colors. These outline borders and white-centred initials mark the downfall of the professional illuminator. After 1500 he disappears, and the engraver on wood takes his place. In this field the Italian engravers were undisputed masters, and Mr. Pollard does no more than justice in giving them the greatest praise.

The simple Italian style was transplanted and successfully practised in Paris by Geoffrey Tory, but French engravers had already developed a style of their own, largely based on monastic patterns, as may be seen in the borders of their 'Books of Hours,' which did not need further development by color. The French style leaned to strong contrasts of black and white, or to closer engraving on cribbled backgrounds. The bold devices of Kerver, Eustace, Levet and Vostre must have severely taxed the weak hand-press of this period. Judged by modern standards, the first pages of the French printers were not title-pages, for at least one-half (and often three-fourths) of the page was given up to the device of the printer, who was more intent on showing his own name and advertising his office than he was in defining the book or the name of its author.

The simplicity, or, as some may call it, the boldness of the modern title began with Aldus Manutius of Venice. In his 'Statius' of 1501, we find the device of the dolphin and anchor alone on a separate leaf, the title-page in plain capitals on the following leaf. Then comes a preface on a separate page. The work ends with the list of signatures and the imprint on the last leaf. This separation of the different parts of the book seems to have been promptly imitated by many printers of classic texts in Lyons and Paris. The titles of Robert Stephens of Paris had a small device on the title page, but in their simplicity and freedom from bold display his titles are thoroughly Aldine as to style.

The French printers of romances never adopted this plain style. To catch the eye of a possible buyer, it was necessary to make use of a striking design on the first page. A huge sprawling initial, decorated with grotesque heads, was a favorite device. Bits of engraved border, often of the most incongruous description, were put about the trade-mark of the printer, and printed in flaring red ink. Printers who had no devices made their title-pages noticeable by arranging the types of their titles in a fantastic form, as of an inverted pyramid, of a cross, and sometimes of a coffin or a goblet. Before 1550 the lines that separated books of study from books of amusement or of devotion were fairly drawn. The practised buyer at a glance could discern the frivolous from the classic or the religious.

Early French and Italian titles have received adequate treatment from Mr. Pollard. Nor have the earlier English titles been neglected, although they have few noticeable features. Much more might have been written by him concerning the grandiose titles of the early Spanish printers, and the forbidding solemnity of the old German black-letter titles, almost unreadable through their gloominess and excess of flourish. It is a disappointment to note the neglect to mention titles in engraved architectural framework, which became so common in Flemish, Spanish, and English books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The noble pictorial titles of Christopher Plantin, many of which were designed and engraved on copper by artists of renown, deserved more than a passing notice. Nor was the English title of the sixteenth century altogether undeserving of illustration. Cranmer's 'Great Bible' of 1540 and the 'Arcadia' of 1598 show titles that distinctly mark a development of typography. Here it may be said that English engraving on wood during this and a later period has been unjustly depreciated. It was not of a high order, but it compares favorably with that then done on the Continent. It needed, what it did not get, more skill in presswork to show the merit of engraved titles that are now hopelessly muddled with excess of dirty ink.

For the typographic titles of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Mr. Pollard has a most justifiable dislike. The graceful borders, the bold initials, the elaborate devices were then out of fashion. Artists had properly refused to draw on wood designs that were sure to be butchered by incompetent engravers or pressmen. If the printer of that time wanted a good illustration for a title, he must have it done by the copper-plate process. If he attempted wood, he regretted the venture, as any one may readily see who examines any of the monotonous and spiritless woodcuts that were then used by French, German, and English printers. The hideous basket of flowers was a stock device among all. The title-page entirely in type, or with a very small device added, marks a new feature of development. It has been shown how the illuminator had suppressed the printer; the engraver on wood, the illuminator; the publisher, the engraver on wood. Now came the turn of the author, who claimed and got at least three-fourths of the title-page, and sent the publisher and his imprint down to the foot. The change so made was proper enough, but the manner in which the title-page was composed was often absurd. To make up for the blackness of the excluded woodcuts, the printer selected his biggest capital letters, or the boldest black-letter, for one or more of the lines of display. If the word or words so selected would not come in the line, he divided them without remorse. For this practice he had high authority. In many famous early books one may see words of display chopped, mangled, and dislocated, apparently with serenest composure. For example, the first half of the word Commentaries may appear in capitals one-half inch high, and the other half in minuscules not one-eighth inch high. As the titles of the seventeenth century were usually prolix, this treatment made them look like handbills or posters.

In claiming the title-page as his own, the author usually undertook to assign to each line its relative degree of prominence. Not clearly understanding the inflexibility of types, he assigned too many letters to one line and too few to another. These orders compelled the printer to use many sizes of types. Mr. Pollard is in error in thinking that the resulting confusion was the consequence of the printer's desire to show the variety of his stock. It really came from the poverty of his stock. He did not have, nor did the type-founder make, sizes enough to meet the author's notions of a nicely graduated display of words. The author pitched his tune too high. The printer did his best with insufficient supply, spacing out the short lines with wide blanks, huddling the words that were too long in types that were too small, and filling up unsightly gaps with ruled lines. The average title-page of the eighteenth century, whether made by Didot or Baskerville, or any printer of minor importance, is always artificially arranged without sense or reason, and is usually a monument of bad taste.

Nor was much improvement made in the titles of books printed during the first quarter of this century. To English printers must be given the credit of the earliest tasteful composition of titles in letters of small size. They were the first to lower the scale of poster-like display, and to arrange the distinct clauses of a title in separate lines. Yet this improved style was often pushed to its extreme. A full or complex title was divided and subdivided in so-called "display-lines" and "catch-lines." When the display-lines were weak, the catch-lines were so small as to be almost unreadable, and the general effect was that of feebleness. French printers have always clung to big types for title displays. They evaded the difficulties of inflexible type by their introduction of condensed capitals, which allowed the use of more letters in one line. The impropriety of using types that are pinched with those that are of regular proportion, does not seem to be perceived.

Pickering of London seems to have been the first to apply a little common sense to the selection of types for titles. In his later years he rejected all forms of condensed letter, and set his titles in plain types of established proportion. He discarded the arbitrary rules of the printers of his time, and the equally mischievous notions of authors as to the relative prominence of lines, and set his titles as he believed Aldus and Stephens would have set them

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if they had had modern materials. Robert Clarke of Edinburgh and Houghton of Boston show, though not by the same methods, equally praiseworthy attempts at the simple and direct method of composing book-titles. They are exceptions. The book-title of the average printer of to-day, whether he is in England, France, or America, is usually the worst page in the book as to composition. Some of them are as disgraceful as those of the seventeenth century. Our modern printer works in self-imposed fetters in the difficult path laid out for him by the critical author or publisher. This line must be large, and that small; this long, that short. Here must be italic, there black-letter. The meaning of the author is subordinated to stiff typographical rules that serve no good purpose. It follows that the title of the modern book is, as a rule, unsatisfactory to all concerned. It seems to be made not to help the reader, but to show the craft of the compositor.

Titles would be simpler, more satisfactory to the reader, and a real grace to their texts, if there were a proper supply of suitable types. Although type-founders' specimen books are filled with a wonderful variety of ornamental letter, there is no type-founder, either here or abroad, who makes a carefully graded series of Roman capitals of harmonious face. There are only two or three faces that approach completeness; the best show serious gaps. It is largely for the want of these needed sizes that our book-titles are so imperfect. Something, too, needs to be said about the quality of these title types. Following the French fashion, all our founders make title types of thin face, sharp hair-line, and feeble effect. Even the reproduced old-style faces are emasculated with razor-edged lines. The strong, virile types of the old printers are to be found only in old books. Mr. William Morris of London had good reason for rejecting all the modern faces. For two of his books he had new types made, after the models of the early Italian printers, and these seem to be the only text types that have been made for the convenience of the reader, and not for the glorification of the type-founder.

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE.—II.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. I. Hell. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE characteristics apparent in the Francesca fragment pervade Mr. Norton's work from the first page to the last. We have applied to it two sorts of tests: we have read many of its cantos line by line with the Italian in order to judge its literalness, and we have read other cantos freely, as we should any new work, with our mind fixed on the story and the style, in order to get its literary quality. In both cases the result has been most satisfactory; the translation is not only exact, it is literature. We can recall no other work of similar importance in which the translator has been equally successful in excluding all paraphrases and all words which had no correspondence with the original. We used to think that Dr. John A. Carlyle's version of the 'Inferno' was a marvel of exactness and lucidity; but a comparison of this version with Mr. Norton's shows that the latter is invariably more concise and more exact, and not less lucid. Mr. Norton has, besides, what Dr. Carlyle had not—style, that quality which gives distinction to single sentences, cements one sentence to the next, rounds out the paragraph to its full proportion, and makes each canto harmonious and symmetrical. Dr. Carlyle often chooses words of singular strength and picturesqueness, and in those cases where he has not been able to improve upon them Mr. Norton has retained them, as, for instance, "clucking voice," for "voce chioccia" (vii, 2); but in the construction of his sentences Dr. Carlyle does not sustain the excellence of his choice of words. For an example, let us take the description of Geryon's descent, with Dante and Virgil on his back, to the Eighth Circle (xvii, 100–105):

"As the bark goes from its station backward, backward, so the monster took himself from thence; and when he felt himself quite loose, there where his breast had been he turned his tail, and stretching moved it, like an eel, and with his paws gathered the air to him."

This is Dr. Carlyle's rendering of one of Dante's most compressed yet very vivid descriptions. Mr. Norton's is as follows:

"As the little vessel goeth from its place, backward, backward, so he thence withdrew; and when he felt himself quite at play, he turned his tail to where his breast had been, and moved it, stretched out like an eel, and with his paws gathered the air to himself."

This excels the other not less in literalness than in style. It is, of course, impossible to point out within the space allotted to a review many of the felicities of expression; we therefore limit ourselves to mentioning a few, each of which, however, will be found to be typical of the way in which Mr. Norton has overcome difficulties of different kinds. What could be better than "Ivy was never so *bearded* to a tree," for "Ellera *abbarbicata* mai non fue Ad alber" (xxv, 58-59)? Longfellow has "Ivy was never fastened by its barbs," and Dr. Carlyle contents himself with the epithet "rooted," whereas "bearded" gives the definite picture of the original. Admirable is the phrase "the brief *jest* of the goods that are committed unto Fortune" (vii, 61); admirable, too, this other (xxx, 91-92), "the two poor wretches that are smoking like a wet hand in winter." In all the 'Inferno' there is perhaps no more complicated passage than that in which Dante describes how a serpent fixed itself on the body of Agnel Brunelleschi, how the man and the reptile were merged in one, and how finally they separated, each being metamorphosed into the other's form. The passage (xxv, 50-141) is much too long to quote, but those who would see how Mr. Norton surpasses previous translators would do well to read it carefully. In the following well-known simile he has triumphed over the difficulties of an unusually long sentence, and he has chosen words most fit:

"As in the Arsenal of the Venetians, in winter, the sticky pitch for smearing their unsound vessels is boiling, because they cannot go to sea, and, instead thereof, one builds him a new bark, and one caulks the sides of that which hath made many a voyage; one hammers at the prow, and one at the stern; another makes oars, and another twists the cordage; and one the foresail and the mainsail patches—so, not by fire, but by divine art, a thick pitch was boiling there below, which belimed the bank on every side." (xxi, 7–18.)

In the Italian, with its inflected endings, it is comparatively easy to follow the meaning of a long passage like this, but to render it clearly in English—where endings and genders are less clearly marked, and where pronouns have to follow their substantives more closely, if ambiguity is to be avoided—is a noteworthy feat. We cannot too highly commend the entire version of the twenty-second canto for its vividness, ease, and vigor; and Count Ugolino's story, in the thirty-third, is equally fine in a different way. Dante invariably chooses words appropriate to the theme; like the Greeks, he intends that each episode shall be so expressed as to produce one predominant effect on the reader—thus, Francesca speaks in another key from Ugolino's. In this respect, also, Mr. Norton has been more successful than his predecessors; the modulations in language of the original are reflected in his translation.

We have marked a few words which we think might be improved, although we are aware that where it is a question of taste rather than of exactness, opinions must necessarily differ. In prose, we prefer *between* to *'tween* (i, 105). *Silvestro* (ii, 142) doubtless means by implication *savage*, but would it not be better to translate literally, and allow the reader to infer what connotation he might choose? *Dire* for *duro* (iii, 12) is another case in which the generic word of the original has been limited to a specific, derived meaning; *hard* exactly represents *duro*, and is preferable to *dire*. *Everything is confessed* (v, 8) is a paraphrase of *tutta si confessa;* here *tutta*, of course, refers to the *anima* in the preceding line—the meaning being that "the *whole soul* confesses itself." *Perso* (v, 89) is translated *lurid*, but further on (vii, 103) we have *perse*, a legitimate old English form. *Pluto* is translated *Pluto* (vi, 115, vii, 2), instead of *Plutus*. We are aware that this word has caused much discussion, but since *Plutone* is the regular Italian form of *Pluto*, and *Pluto* of *Plutus*, it seems best to observe the distinction, and not to imply, as some critics have implied, that Dante confounded the two. *Sucide* (viii, 10) carries with it an idea of filthiness, and so is hardly represented by *turbid*. *Stipa* (xi, 3) means rather 'a multitude huddled together' than the *pen* in which they are. *Opizzo* (xii, 111) should be *Obizzo*, and *Bergomasques* (xx, 71) should be *Bergamasques*. On p. 65, note 2, occurs the form *Aretians*, instead of *Aretines*, used elsewhere. *Lembo* (xv, 24) is *hem*, and can figuratively only be rendered *skirt*. *Smorte* (xvii, 86) means the opposite of *livid;* it is correctly translated *pallid* in iv, 14, and xxx, 25. *Annegava* (xix, 20) should be not *stifling* but *drowning*. *Vêr* (xxxi, 70) should be *towards* instead of *to;* a slight difference, perhaps, yet one which Dante evidently intended. The Carisenda tower is the shorter, not the taller, of the two leaning towers at Bologna (p. 173, note 3). Would it not be well to translate *babbo* (xxxii, 9), and to omit *the* before *Caprara* (xxxiii, 82), the English form of which, by the way, is usually the same as the Italian, *Capraja?*

It will be observed that most of the changes suggested make for greater literalness. That Dante can almost always be best represented by a literal rather than by a free version, that his words should be taken in their primary and not in their figurative sense, we have sufficiently illustrated by the quotations above. Mr. Norton never falls into the easy vice of translators who get round a difficulty by manufacturing unidiomatic compound words. His notes are few and brief, but, on the whole, sufficient. Reticence among Dante annotators is so rare that it deserves to be specially commended. The reader of this version will look in vain for any discussion of the many doubtful passages; he will not be bothered with a summary of the views of those critics who insist that the line, "Poscia, più che'l dolor, potè il digiuno," implies that Count Ugolino ate his sons (xxxiii, 75), or with the wasted diligence of other grubbers who think that they have discovered in Arabic or in Syriac a meaning for Nimrod's gibberish (xxxi, 67), which Dante expressly states is unintelligible.

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Mr. Norton wisely restricts his explanations to the needs of the average person who takes up the 'Divine Comedy' for the first time and wishes to know what Dante has to say, regardless of the philological and antiquarian puzzles which the text has furnished. The arrangement of paragraphs, not less than the punctuation in the translation, will be of further assistance, nor should we omit to call attention to the preface, in which Mr. Norton states concisely the general purpose of Dante's epic. To the list of works to be consulted we would add Carlyle's lecture on the "Hero as Poet."

In conclusion, we repeat that this is altogether the best English translation of the 'Inferno,' outranking Dr. Carlyle's version as easily as that outranks all the metrical versions. Other translators will doubtless strive to transmute the Italian *terza rima* into English verse—since to strive after the unattainable is a deep-rooted instinct in human nature—but we believe that this translation of Mr. Norton's will become the classic and favorite translation. How great a service he has rendered in thus placing the 'Divine Comedy' within reach of English readers, we may endeavor to point out when we speak of the other canticles.

Thomas Sopwith. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. Pp. 400.

THE subject of this memoir was born in 1803 and died in 1879. From 1822 until the year of his death he kept an elaborate diary contained in one hundred and sixty-eight small and three large volumes, and, under the supervision of Dr. Richardson, this vast mass of material has been reduced to a moderate-sized volume. In these days of the making of many books and of consequent weariness of the flesh, we should have felt indebted to the Doctor if he had still further reduced the size of the book; if he had not always referred to Weber's opera as "Der Frieschütz"; if he had not misquoted Dryden's line as "Great genius is to madness close allied"; if he had omitted such an absurd heading as "The Ascent of Chamounix"; and if he had in many other respects used what lawyers call "due diligence."

Although not known to fame outside of a limited circle, Thomas Sopwith was, in some ways, a remarkable man. He was a musician, an architect, a distinguished engineer, connected with important mines and with some of the early railroads; and in the course of a long and active life he was brought in contact with the Stephensons, with Faraday, and with a great many other famous people. Every day for fifty-seven years he wrote down his impressions of people and places, together with reflections on a great variety of subjects. Judging from the specimens here given, his impressions are often interesting, but his reflections are of the trite and commonplace character peculiar to people who habitually overestimate the originality of their ideas.

In 1828, during a visit to Scotland, he called on "Christopher North," whom he describes as "carelessly dressed in a large and coarse great coat and waistcoat, no neckcloth to a shirt seemingly worn two or three days, and a beard neglected for the same period." Dress seems to have made considerable impression on Mr. Sopwith, for he describes William IV., whom he saw in the chapel at Windsor in 1833, as dressed in a very shabby coat, and Queen Adelaide sitting by him, "plainly dressed in a green hat and a white feather, blue sleeves and a white gown"—which cannot be considered an expert account of such important matters, but shows an intelligent interest. Owing to the nature of his business, he was a great traveller, and he gives a multitude of figures showing that the cost of travelling by coach was twelve cents a mile, and the average speed 8.15 miles per hour. In January, 1834, he spent sixty-four hours in travelling between Newcastle and the Forest of Dean mines, eighty-two hours in resting or detentions, and only five hours in the business of the mines which necessitated the journeys. In 1838 he visited Ireland, and came to the conclusion that the chief faults of the people were improvidence and love of gayety among the rich, and improvidence and love of whiskey among the poor. He found, as he had expected to find, much misery, and he says: "Imagination, however fertile, will never picture the sad and horrible and gloomy aspect of these dwellings of the Irish poor." He was a great admirer of Dr. Buckland, and tells a story of his riding towards London with a friend on a very dark night and losing his way. The Doctor dismounted, and, taking up a handful of earth, smelt it. "Uxbridge," he called to his friend, his geological nose having enabled him to hit the precise locality. A better-known story of the Doctor is his brief but comprehensive criticism of Mrs. Probyn's picture of the Queen, "Deplorably like." Mr. Sopwith corresponded with Mrs. Somerville, and tells of her introduction to Laplace, who greeted her as the *second* most learned lady in the world. "I give the first place," said he, "to Mrs. Grieg." It was under this name—that of her first husband—that she had published her translation of Laplace's 'Mechanism of the Heavens.' When this wonderful old lady was in her ninety-third year, she wrote as follows: "I am quite deaf but see well, and my memory is only good in mathematics, so I amuse myself solving problems by the method of quaternions in the morning, and Martha beats me unmercifully at bézique in the evening."

Much has been written about the mechanical inventions and improvements of the first half of the present century, but we seldom hear of the multitude of more or less ingenious schemes which came to nothing. Mr. Sopwith had a great reputation for caution as well as for engineering skill, but we find him in 1840 warmly approving a plan for an atmospheric railway, of which nothing more has been heard from that day to this. In this same year, 1840, there were in use on the Gloucester and Cheltenham Railway twice as many American as English engines, although the first cost of the former, including duty, was somewhat higher. It is to be presumed, therefore, that the American engine of those days was more efficient than the English, and this is all the more interesting because some recent experiments go to prove that the superiority is still maintained.

Mr. Sopwith was one of those fortunate individuals whose daily occupations are entirely congenial to their tastes. He was successful, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, his health was excellent, and he seems to have been equally happy with the three ladies who successively assumed his name and looked after his household. Perhaps if he had been less uniformly fortunate, the story of his life would have been more interesting. He was, no doubt, a most estimable and well-informed person, and it may be that his friends fancied that, by publishing this book, they would save him from the fate of Mr. John Gray, as described in that saddest of epitaphs:

> "Poor John Gray, here he lies,
> Nobody weeps, and nobody sighs.
> Where he's gone, and how he fares,
> Nobody knows and nobody cares!"

The writing of diaries for domestic consumption is a harmless, and possibly a useful, occupation, but their publication, even in condensed form, is a matter for serious consideration.

Conduct as a Fine Art: The Laws of Daily Conduct, by Nicholas Paine Gilman; Character Building, by Edward Payson Jackson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

IN the fall of 1889 the American Secular Union offered a prize of $1,000 for the manual best adapted to assist teachers to instruct boys and girls in the principles of morality without at the same time "inculcating religious doctrine." Although the two essays which are bound together under the title of 'Conduct as a Fine Art,' did not exactly meet all the requirements of the competition, the prize was divided between them. Mr. Jackson's essay is put in the form of a dialogue between a certain Dr. Dix of Freetown Academy and his pupils. Naturally, a discourse on morals appearing in this guise arouses a certain expectation of dulness to come; but one has to read only a few pages before discovering that Dr. Dix's ten-minute talks are the contrary of tedious. It is the author's enthusiasm and his bright, incisive way of writing that redeem them from the common fate of the didactic conversation. Occasionally, however, the conditions of the dialogue betray him into a little stageyness; as, for example, when a boy asks the Doctor one of the standing questions about justifiable lying, and the Doctor makes his reply "[*rising, and speaking with deliberate emphasis.*]" It is hard to see what there is in the circumstances that calls for the exhibition of any such restrained excitement. Not infrequently also the Doctor answers "[*coldly*]." It would be better if his depression of spirits were inferred from what he says: the effect is certainly weakened by the insertion of the explanatory parenthesis. But this is after all a minor matter.

Mr. Gilman has endeavored to develop and discuss topics which belong to practical ethics in their logical order. He consequently begins with familiar illustrations of the fact that we live under civil and natural law, in order that he may show also how there is a moral or social law to which we are equally subject. He then talks about obedience and the self-control that makes obedience possible, after which follow in their natural order chapters on Truthfulness, Justice, Work, Personal Habits, and the like.

It is the purpose of both these essays to enable teachers—and especially the more inexperienced of them—intelligently to train their pupils in practical morality. Few persons are satisfied with what is being done now in the schools, or rather what is not being done. Although conduct is three-fourths of life, many schools teach it only as such teaching is implied in the daily maintenance of order. Indeed, Professor Bain goes so far as to say: "For boys and girls above twelve we may as a rule pronounce that moral lecturing, except in actual discipline, is misplaced." By "moral lecturing" he appears to mean any formal attempt to give instruction in morals. But thoughtful teachers feel, in theory at least, that their work with their pupils would be much more effective if they could succeed in raising or completing the moral standards of school-children. The child's imperfect and one-sided sense of honor is responsible for that barrier of actual, though often unconscious, antagonism which turns many a boy's

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attentive guide and instructor into his severe and watchful master. Moreover, comparatively few boys and girls realize what a teacher is for; they seemingly look upon him as a daily examiner and meter-out of rewards and punishments, and consequently as the object against which small conspiracies may be plotted. Their imagination is too weak to grasp the large idea of the school's real interests, and the need that each of its members should shape his conduct accordingly. If it were common to find schools where such a broadly intelligent spirit prevailed, children would be receiving even now the best possible moral preparation for actual life.

How much the regular teaching of morals which Mr. Gilman and Mr. Jackson urge will aid in creating the true standard and spirit, it would be difficult to say beforehand. They are wise in leaving to the individual instructor the particular way their essays are to be used. In fact, Mr. Gilman modestly limits the aim of his book to the "much-needed service of clearing the mind of the common-school teacher as to the nature and limits of the moral training which may advisably be given in the schoolroom." Undoubtedly if he had enlarged the scope of his explanations a little, he would have made his chapters more interesting and enlightening. Morals have been talked and written about to such an extent that scarcely anything can be said which has not been said before, though perhaps in a slightly different way. But there is so much to be found in sociological studies which make clear, as well as give freshness and interest to, such subjects as truthfulness and justice and honor, that it is surprising to discover merely a few references to these facts in Mr. Gilman's pages, or even in his notes. When he comes to speak of moral progress, he draws upon this unfailing source, and consequently his pages then furnish a positive diversion after some that have gone before. It is unfortunate, also, that, in writing of self-control and of habit, he says nothing about their physical basis in the structure of the nerves, which Dr. Carpenter, and more recently Prof. James, have so well brought out. As Prof. James says: "Could the young but realize how soon they will become mere walking bundles of habits, they would give more heed to their conduct while in the plastic state."

There are several comparatively unimportant statements in both essays which might easily be questioned. For example, Mr. Gilman's assertion that "representative offices should not be sought by the private citizen" implies a modesty decidedly finical, unless it be intended to arouse a feeling of contrition in the breast of the average Tammany brave. Again, if it be true in these days, why is it necessary or wise to teach children that "the husband and father is the natural head of the family"? To turn briefly to Mr. Jackson, one detects here and there a tendency to overemphasis and exaggeration, which worried teachers sometimes permit themselves when trying to impress the mind of a dull pupil. Furthermore, when Dr. Dix inculcates fidelity by indulging in an analogy beginning with, "No, things are never unfaithful," he simply bewilders the minds of his listeners by a vicious course of reasoning. Even his alleged facts are not facts, for the "lower animate creation" is not always faithful to its duty, as every one knows who owns a hunting-dog. But such slight blemishes do not seriously mar either essay, filled as each is with true and helpful thoughts forcibly expressed. The combined work will certainly call attention to the subject, and prompt educators to a more intelligent consideration of it than has been customary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balch, Thomas. The French in America during the War of Independence of the United States. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Bancroft, George. The Battle of Lake Erie, and Miscellaneous Papers. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bazan, E. P. The Swan of Vilamorta. Cassell Publishing Company. $1.
Bertrand, Prof. H. French Speaker. Harrisburg, Pa.: E. K. Meyers.
Brady, Rev. J. B. The Saengerfest Sermons. Newark, N. J.: *Advertiser* Printing House. $1.50.
Bramston, M. A Village Genius. Thomas Whittaker. 90 cents.
Byers, S. H. M. The Happy Isles, and Other Poems. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Carey, J. B. The Oddities of Short-Hand. New York: Excelsior Publishing Co.
Child, Theodore. Art and Criticism. Harper & Bros. $6.
Craddock, C. E. In the "Stranger People's" Country. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Croly, Mrs. J. C. Thrown upon her own Resources; or, What Girls Can Do. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Danilevski, G. P. The Princess Tarakanova: A Dark Chapter of Russian History. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Debeenham, Mary H. Mistress Phil. Thomas Whittaker. 90 cents.
Drummond, Henry. The Programme of Christianity. James Pott & Co.
Edersheim, A. Jesus the Messiah. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. $3.50.
Edwards, Miss A. B. Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers. Harper & Bros. $4.
Ely, Prof. Talfourd. Olympos: Tales of the Gods of Greece and Rome. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Evelyn's Career. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Faber, Rev. F. W. The Church for the Times. Westfield, N. Y.: The Lakeside Press. 25 cents.
Farquhar, A. B., and H. Economic and Industrial Delusions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Fernald, Rev. J. C. The New Womanhood. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Flügel, Felix. English-German and German-English Dictionary. Part II. B. Westermann & Co.
Fraser, Mrs. Alex. A Fashionable Marriage. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Friendship: Cicero, Bacon, Emerson. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co. $2.

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